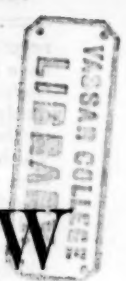


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THE STRUGGLE WITH ANARCHY.

THE Government have begun their arduous conflict with the partisans of treason and the practitioners of murder in Ireland in a manner which bodes very fairly for its success. They took the proper means to prevent riot yesterday, in case Mr. GLADSTONE'S encouragements should prevail over the fear of bullets; but they have done much more than this. They have, following up the leave taken in the Proclamation of some weeks ago, prohibited and suppressed that dangerous association the National League in the whole county of Clare (which has recently become perhaps the very worst, and has long been one of the worst, in Ireland) and in certain baronies of Galway, Kerry, Cork, and Wexford. The localizing of the campaign in this way may grieve impatient souls; but it is probably the wisest course on the whole, and it escapes the charge of anything like precipitation and promiscuity. Of the justification of the proceeding in itself it is unnecessary to say much here. There is probably not an honest and intelligent man in the three kingdoms who, having given the subject his attention, believes the National League to be anything but a provocation to disorder and a source of organized crime. There are, no doubt, some honest, but not intelligent, men who think differently; some intelligent, but not honest, men who speak differently; and some few men, intelligent perhaps and honest in their way, who simply have not knowledge enough of the subject to arrive at a conclusion. Mr. PHILIP STANHOPE has, in a letter to the *Times*, expressed the deepest indignation against those who have stated the plain truth that the Moonlighters of Lisdoonvarna are simply the executioners of the League, and that the League itself without Moonlighting deserves the somewhat ferocious comparison which HENRY the Fifth is said to have used of war without fire-raising. It is most probable that Mr. STANHOPE believes what he says; for we have never heard his honour impeached or his judgment defended. But there are those among Mr. STANHOPE'S colleagues of whom it is not uncharitable to say that they certainly do not believe it, though political rancour or sheer love of mischief may half blind them to the facts. Every branch of the National League is a standing threat to the life of every Constable WHELAN or Farmer SEXTON. It exists only in virtue of the knowledge that disobedience to its orders will be, or at any rate may be, visited with the fate with which SEXTON was threatened, and which WHELAN met. As an association especially directed to the carrying out of an illegal system ("nobody," says an ultra-Gladstonian print, "would think of calling the Plan legal"), it is technically guilty of whatever crimes may be committed in carrying out that system. But it is more than that. For the crimes are not committed merely in the course of illegal proceedings, like crimes committed in the course of smuggling or poaching. They are committed with the deliberate purpose of applying the terror arising from them as an engine for strengthening the League and enforcing its orders. The murderous smuggler or poacher only wants to be left to smuggle or poach in peace; the Leaguer murders to establish the authority of the League. A League which dared not murder, which was unable to effectively boycott, would be simply an absurdity; the people would laugh at it. No promoter of the National League can, unless he is a fool as well as a knave, seriously disapprove of Moonlighters, for he disapproves of the sanction—the only sanction—of his own code. The honest leaguers of Kerry who shouted "We could not

"do without them," in reply to Mr. PICKERSGILL'S platitudes, spoke the simple truth.

It was, therefore, and is absolutely necessary to grapple directly with this Murder Society in the places where it is most active in its own operations. The conflict during the dark months—it is an additional, though only an additional, instance of the reckless mendacity of the Gladstonian party that the reappearance of Moonlighting which has been invariable for years as soon as the nights lengthen, is set down to the policy of the Government—will no doubt be to some extent hand-to-hand work with midnight murderers. But there is much to be done in the light of day. The Government have to take in hand the meetings of anarchists, "enthusiastic but amenable," as Miss AMY MANDER, undergraduate of Newnham, member of the Wolverhampton School Board, and introducer of the practice of reading essays as evidence, has it. They have to conduct legal proceedings where the conduct of the standing counsel to Captain Moonlight will, no doubt, unless it is kept in check, imitate the insolence of Mr. HARRINGTON at Mitchelstown. Whether it is necessary and possible for them to apply some sharp repressive action to those English sympathizers with crime who contribute money and inflammatory speeches to arouse the enthusiastic but amenable operators of Ballygastil, must be a very serious question. It is evident that nothing can be hoped from the responsible leaders of these irresponsibles, since Mr. GLADSTONE wrote to a correspondent ostentatiously declining to interfere with or take any notice of those of his followers who are joining an illegal association, assisting it to do illegal acts, and inciting it to resist the officers of the law in the execution of their duty. Most of these persons have no sense of shame to feel reproach, and many of them have no intelligence to make them sensible of argument. Nothing, of course, is more to be deprecated than legal proceedings, which have even a chance of failing. But the narrowest watch should be kept on English agitators, and the very moment that any one of them, especially any member of Parliament, has committed the slightest clear breach of the law, he should be pounced upon and treated with the law's utmost rigour. The very significant lowering of Mr. DILLON'S tone—a symptom never failing in these braggart agitators as soon as the law wakes up—may be taken to indicate that what has to be feared is not so much open violence on the great scale, as petty breaches of order and the provision of sensational incidents for the delusion of the "English democracy." But, for the reasons already given, it is impossible for the League to stop Moonlighting for long. If it did, it might as well dissolve itself, divide Mr. BRUNNER'S and Mr. LABOUCHERE'S subscriptions among its members, and remove itself altogether from a country where its occupation, its forces, its life would be gone. Nothing but terror and the hopes of illicit gain combined would keep any people without revolt in such a Valley of the Shadow of Death as the parts of Ireland dominated by the League. Even terror would hardly do it alone, and greed certainly would not. But when the Irish people see that the threats of the League and its promises are alike vain, that it dares not murder them any longer, and cannot transfer to them their landlords' property, the game of Mr. PARNELL and of Mr. DILLON will be up for good, or at least till some future English Government allows some fresh two-handed engine of intimidation and of bribery to be established.

We have said before now that the rather curious

negotiations between Dr. WALSH and the Irish landlords have little more than an interest of curiosity to the English Government and the English nation. The landlords recently assembled in Dublin have said various pretty things of themselves—the only point, perhaps, in reference to which Lord MONCK's letter to them can be said to have been unanswerable. But they have not removed the reproach of irresolution, incapacity to act together, private and hand-to-mouth bargain-making—the reproach of the *émigré* taint, in short, which perhaps unkindly, but not wholly unjustly, enemies have made against them. Their censor's own letter is an exact illustration of the fault of the whole body. Lord MONCK has served Mr. GLADSTONE, and has not served him for nothing, so that some of his expressions must be set down to the common and creditable gratitude of a well-paid servant to a liberal employer. But he could hardly have quoted a more fatal text than that about agreeing with an adversary. To begin with, it is pretty clear from the context that the person to whom this advice was given had a very bad case. In the second place, it is also evident that the agreement was regarded as likely to be duly observed. The landlords of Ireland must be credulous indeed if they think that they will get fair terms, or terms which, whether fair or not, will be observed, from Captain Moonlight. But that, after all, is their affair. That they have been very badly treated by England is certain; that they have done nothing to bring that bad treatment on themselves by recklessness in their day of prosperity and by shiftlessness in their day of adversity would be a much bolder word. But this present business is, as has been said, their affair; and, as a matter of Imperial interest, it is chiefly noteworthy as a proof that the astute Nationalists see the necessity of shortening sail as the wind of Government resolution blows higher and steadier.

#### PAID MEMBERS.

THE resolution of the Northumberland miners to discontinue the salaries of Mr. BURT and Mr. FENWICK may probably be explained by local causes. Mr. BURT lately declined to approve of a strike which, like almost all such operations, was popular at the time; and Mr. FENWICK, having less hold on the favour of his constituents, may perhaps only have shared the fate of his colleague. It would be unwise to speak confidently of a change of opinion among the mining population of the North, which may admit of various interpretations. Only hasty theorists will assume that general objections to the payment of members have had any influence on the decision. The Swansea Congress unanimously approved of the practice, as they sanctioned many more revolutionary proposals. It is not surprising that the working class should wish to relieve themselves from even the trifling expense of allowing a few hundreds a year out of their own funds to those whom they regard as their special representatives. It is possible that the withdrawal of the grants to Mr. BURT and Mr. FENWICK may have been intended as a protest against the existing system of unpaid service in Parliament. It is well known that salaries of the paid members were not provided by public subscription, but contributed from the corporate revenue of the Unions. Some economical members may have thought, not incorrectly, that the payment was not properly a charge on funds which were subscribed for other purposes. The Swansea Congress, with characteristic contempt for justice and common sense, passed a resolution to the effect that Conservative workmen should not be appointed to any office, even though their opinions on trade questions were strictly orthodox according to the Union standard. It is certainly a hardship that a workman should be compelled to pay his share of the salary of a member of Parliament who invariably votes against the convictions of the unwilling subscriber; but it is scarcely probable that the rights of a political minority should have been scrupulously protected by their opponents.

Mr. FENWICK, though his name is not known beyond the limits of one mineral district, must have commanded the confidence of the voters who returned him to Parliament, especially as they, in the first instance, contributed through the Union to his maintenance. It is probably by no fault of his own that he has failed to distinguish himself in the House of Commons. At Swansea he conformed in all respects to the popular opinion, though he may perhaps not have shared in the delusions which it might not have been

prudent to expose. Mr. BURT's absence from the House of Commons will be more seriously regretted if he finds it necessary to resign his seat. He has acquired general respect by his demeanour, and he has taken an important and useful share in some branches of special legislation. On general questions he has voted steadily with his party, and he would probably have followed the same course if he had been an independent and unpaid member. It is to be regretted that any member of the House of Commons should be compelled to obey the dictates of his constituents with the alternative of risking the modest income on which he subsists; but unpaid members are often more pliable than Mr. BURT, and some of his political allies are guilty of offences against conscience and against decency of which Mr. BURT is incapable. If before the next Session the necessary provision is made from some other quarter, Mr. BURT will not find it necessary to retire. Whether Mr. FENWICK resigns or retains his seat is not a question of general interest. It would be satisfactory to learn that the resolution of the miners to withdraw the Parliamentary allowances indicated disapproval of the extravagant doctrines which have lately been propounded by Trades-Union agitators; but that is hardly probable.

It is not unlikely that the resolution of the Northumberland and Durham miners may promote an agitation for the payment of members of Parliament out of the public funds. The partial or total discontinuance of the ancient English custom of gratuitous public service would cause just regret; but, if members are to receive remuneration in the form of salaries, it is perhaps unavoidable that the expense should fall on the nation at large. One extreme Radical contended in a speech delivered two or three years ago that politics, like the army and navy or the Civil Service, might advantageously be made the business of a profession. That constitutional freedom and patriotic zeal would receive a fatal blow was a consideration too trifling to trouble a revolutionary projector. His object would be attained by the substitution of a humbler class of candidates for those who have hitherto engaged in political life. A seat in a salaried House of Commons would be valued as an annuity contingent on the satisfaction of a popular body. Constituencies would habitually give a preference to needy aspirants, and the natural leaders of the community would be for the most part relegated to private life. It is true that the possession of ample means affords no sufficient security against unfitness for Parliamentary life. Great capitalists who can afford large subscriptions for the propagation of disorder have lately emulated the extravagance of penniless adventurers. On the other hand, the receipt of a salary is compatible with the grossest unfitness for legislative duties. Some of the Irish demagogues who are maintained at the expense of American enemies of England systematically, and not unsuccessfully, employ themselves in the degradation of Parliament. It is not impossible that one result of the proposed experiment would be a gradual transfer of power from the House of Commons to some body not yet known to the Constitution. A Cabinet led by a popular demagogue might perhaps assume irresponsible power, especially when the subsistence of paid members depended on the favour of the Minister.

The withdrawal of the salaries paid to the representatives of the Trades-Unions may perhaps not be directly attributable to political causes; but the change illustrates the dependence of hired members on their paymasters. If Mr. BURT or Mr. FENWICK has come into collision with the opinions or prejudices of his constituents, he pays a heavy fine for a contumacy which has probably been conscientious. It matters little whether the member who has been fined in the whole amount of his income was right or wrong on any special issue which may have been raised. Some sanguine commentators on the unexpected rupture have conjectured that the malcontents were dissatisfied with the support afforded to Mr. BRUNNER by some of the leading working-class members. It appears, indeed, that the latest addition to the ranks of the revolutionary faction is also the most violent and one of the most mischievous; but Mr. BRUNNER's eccentricities are not such as would excite the indignation of a constituency of Trade-Unionists. The Swansea delegates who passed impertinent votes of censure on the Irish policy of the Government would not disapprove of the crusade of a dozen English agitators for the encouragement of Irish disaffection. If any of them object to the support which may have been given to Mr. BRUNNER, they probably object to the obnoxious candidate as a capitalist, and not as a factious brawler. His boast that he had scarcely a single supporter



among the middle class would not offend the Northern miners. According to another theory, Mr. BURT's constituents are dissatisfied with the proposal for establishing a so-called Labour Party. The reciprocal animosity of certain sects which most nearly approximate to their respective doctrines may not improbably extend to trade societies or to political factions. A Labour Party may be separated by some mysterious difference from similar organizations with a different name, and Mr. BURT may have joined a subdivision of his own party, which now finds itself in a minority. Perhaps the projected Labour Party is to be formed on the model furnished by the Irish Nationalists in the House of Commons; and Mr. BURT may have preferred in the future, as in the past, simple devotion to Mr. GLADSTONE. The most satisfactory explanation of a split, which may perhaps still be repaired, would be that the miners resent the influence of politicians on their interests as members of Trades-Unions. Their organs will probably furnish additional explanation of a transaction which is not fully understood.

#### RIOTING AT LILLIE BRIDGE.

THE riot at Lillie Bridge was principally remarkable because it happened in London. Disorder and attacks on the police are not things of very rare occurrence among the rougher spectators at the baser kind of sporting meetings. But, as a rule, London, which was till lately the most orderly city in the world, has been singularly free from them. It is partly for this reason, no doubt, that the police were not in stronger force on the ground last Monday—and also for another which deserves more attention than the riot itself. As for this event, there is nothing in it to surprise people who are not liable to be astounded by anything out of their immediate experience. As professional sport is conducted at present, and probably has always been conducted, it includes a varying, but always large, blackguard element. The mob of loafers and gamblers which collects round every kind of course on land or water to bet on the performances of professionals is a base rabble, mainly intent on turning a penny without inquiring as to its honesty or dishonesty. The boxing men, rowers, or runners on whom they bet are equally on the lookout for a chance of gain. The race of bookmakers use the performer as a means of filching money from the mob, and, between the three, races are sold and fights are crossed. Of course these feats of ingenuity must cost somebody something, and every now and then the jockeyed patron of sport breaks out, and smashes a pothouse parlour or other scene in which he lost his chance of pocketing a little money. At Lillie Bridge the provocation to a smashing and thrashing was considerable. The crowd which had collected from many distant parts of London to see the great GENT of Darlington run against the illustrious HUTCHENS of Putney was unquestionably defrauded. When the great GENT undertook to race the illustrious HUTCHENS, he undertook to run, unless he was absolutely too ill. As a matter of fact he appears, or was thought, to have backed out because certain bookmakers thought it would suit their interests that he should do so. The spectators had reason to believe that they had been deliberately swindled, and being persons of very much the same character as the organizers of the "sell," of course they broke out howling and clamouring to get their gate-money back. When they found the police too weak to beat them down, they proceeded to smash, burn, and steal—all of which was quite natural and very proper to the regions in which "sport" is shown by professional sportsmen to professional gamblers.

If the matter only interested the patrons of such sport themselves, nothing need be said about it. What does it matter, as the Grand Vizier said to the Christian ambassador, whether the dog worries the hog, or the hog gores the dog? But in this case the scum of the sporting world was suddenly elevated into a dangerous London mob. It behaved after its kind, of course—breaking, pilfering, and fire-raising, pelting the police and the firemen. And all this happened within an easy half-hour's drive from Piccadilly, and mainly because the police were not in sufficient force on the spot to stop it at the beginning. How it was that no more than twelve constables were present on the grounds will, of course, be a subject for inquiry; but in the meantime it is possible to explain their absence in a way which at least partly relieves the chiefs of the force from blame. The population of London, and the amount of space to be patrolled, have increased far more

rapidly than the police force. Its relative weakness is unfortunately well known to the roughs, and, what is worse, these natural enemies of order have of late begun to think that the police is no longer so sure of support by public opinion and the Home Office as it was. With a smaller relative force, Scotland Yard has to deal with a bolder opposition. One remedy for this state of things is obvious. It is the immediate further increase of the police, which has been repeatedly asked for, and never yet granted in proper measure. But more will have to be done than this. The organization of the police requires improvement or, at least, change to adapt it to a new and more arduous position. It will be found necessary to keep an ample reserve of men in every district who can be used as a compact body, and it will be equally necessary to supply them with more serious weapons than the truncheon. A police which has frequently to deal with riotous mobs must have something more effective to use than a stick. Rifles are more than enough, and revolvers are indifferently trustworthy. A cutlass answering to the sabre used by the mounted police would exactly serve the purpose, which is to terrify in the first place, and wound not too seriously in case of violent resistance. It need not be carried by the men on ordinary patrol duty, but a supply could be kept ready at the police barracks for use on an emergency.

#### THE SUEZ CANAL.

IT is not surprising that the rumours as to a new Suez Canal Convention should have excited curiosity, not to say anxiety, in England. The tissue of sense and nonsense which the *Times*' Paris Correspondent has put in the mouth of an "English Statesman" may be in parts, like all communications from the same quarter, intended merely to exalt the sagacity and the information of the writer. But something like the stipulations which he mentioned may not improbably be contained in any agreement on the subject; and it cannot be said that they are satisfactory stipulations. Englishmen, indeed, have small reason to look upon any negotiations of the kind with sanguine feelings. The traditional maxim that English diplomatists throw away what English generals and admirals win is less true, no doubt, under Lord SALISBURY than under Lord GRANVILLE; but, taking one Foreign Secretary with another, there may be no such remarkable gain. Many things, too, combine to render the proceedings suspicious. The conduct (it is only international courtesy which prevents us from saying the impudent conduct) of France in endeavouring to combine the questions of the Canal and the New Hebrides—as if a man who had just appropriated a coat should decline to discuss the matter of its ownership unless the cloak was included in the discussion—is believed to have been treated as it deserved. But the mere proposal gives no very good augury of the spirit in which the other chief party to the suggested contract approaches it. That the Canal is in no sense or part the national property of France and is in great part the national property of England adds to the distaste for bargaining about it. But the necessity of at least attempting a bargain was part of the *damnosa hereditas* of Mr. GLADSTONE's Government. We wish we could hope that the attempt to liquidate this part of it will have the same fate as the Anglo-Turkish Convention.

We take the less notice of the reported details of the arrangement that such details, in any case and every case, must partake of the unsatisfactory character of the whole affair. The objections to neutralization were such as even Lord GRANVILLE could not but perceive, and it is these objections which affect the details, not the details which affect them. Nothing but the supremacy of England can remove English objections to neutralization, and of course it may be very frankly admitted that, if the supremacy of England were definitely assured, it would not be neutralization at all. We think, indeed, that, as some one must be President, it would be well to reserve the Presidency; and the formation of a kind of Canal constabulary—a No-Man's-Militia of the Canal No-Man's-Land—is certain to lead to difficulties. But what in such an arrangement must not lead to difficulties? It would really be better that the status of the Canal should be left undefined and at the mercy of any Power which commands the Mediterranean—as it will in any case be so far as a Commissioner and a force of two thousand men in neutral uniforms can prevent it. For the main objection to neutral-

ization never can be removed by any such scheme, provided that the matter is handled without cant. Nor let any one take refuge in the not uncommon, though hackneyed, truisms about the cant of despising cant. Let us, if any one likes, dismiss the idea (though in itself it is a very reasonable idea) that no Power which is thoroughly dominant in the Mediterranean and the Red Sea would in a great war long permit this inconvenient harbour of refuge and private road of escape for its enemies to exist. But it is perfectly clear that the most scrupulous good faith—genuine, not outward merely—is consistent with so watching and warding the inlets and outlets of the Canal that no hostile fleet, naval or mercantile, could ever get near Port Said or Suez. To neutralize the Suez Canal you must neutralize the Mediterranean. Malta and Famagosta are English menaces to its neutrality; Biserta is, or will shortly be, a French menace. Nay, it is not fanciful to say that Pola is a standing menace to such neutrality as far as Venice is concerned; the Italian arsenals as regards Trieste and Fiume; Toulon as regards Barcelona and Carthage as regards Marseilles. The two thousand persons in neutral uniforms may be ready to die for the defence of any neutral ship in the Canal; but what is the good of that if she is caught off Crete or Cyprus? This crotchet of making war a kind of rounders, in which ships scurry from one tree of refuge to another, is a very childish thing indeed.

But there is more than this. Let any one say, if he pleases, that the objection just dealt with is far-fetched. How, it must be again and again asked, is any Convention, any Commission, any uniformed force in the most beautiful neutral tints in the world, to prevent the *coup* which the Russians notoriously had some idea of executing not so very long ago, the *coup* of sinking (of course accidentally) ships in the Canal to block the passage at important points and moments? The extremest course that could possibly be taken would be to declare such conduct piracy if proved, and to render the perpetrators liable to be hanged by the persons in neutral uniforms. They would certainly deserve to be hanged if they were clumsy enough to let themselves be caught. Even intentional scuttling is difficult enough to prove; intentional collision, or running ashore, or the like, may be pronounced impossible of proof if it is done with the very least intelligence. Nor would it do much good if a malefactor were laid by the heels. The mischief would have been done, and the Power which had commissioned him would at once denounce the Convention. An idler instance of the almost insane passion of the present day for making agreements which are unnecessary in all but certain cases, and certain to be ineffective directly they come into play, has never been given than by this plan for the Neutralization of the Suez Canal. It will in time of peace lead to heartburnings; in time of war it will in all probability be waste paper. The chief hope about it is that it may very likely be impossible ever to get it into active existence.

It will be observed that Mr. Justice Scott, who in a letter to the *Times* appears to hail the dawn of neutralization at the beginning, ends by expressing no very different opinions from those just put forth. Indeed, such a beginning of blessing and end of cursing has not often been seen as the document signed by this writer—who is very well indeed acquainted with Egypt and the way in which mixed Commissions manage Egyptian affairs. He declares that there is “no territory so suitable for neutralization as the ‘Canal’”; but he proceeds—at least in our judgment—to show that any defined neutralization is impossible. He says that the equalization of the voting power of England to the voting power not merely of Russia, but of Sweden and Norway, is absurd; and so say we. He says (in effect) that the Commission so constituted would almost certainly be a centre of intrigue and cabal; and so say we. He says that “no Commission is conceivable to which such ‘power could safely be entrusted’”; and so say we. Mr. Justice Scott’s conclusion, then, is that, though there is no territory in the world so suitable for neutralization as the Canal, it is only the “principle of perpetual ‘neutrality’ which is suited for it. Details must be left to ‘the honour of the signatory Powers.’” Precisely, and that is what we mean by saying that it would be much better to leave all attempts at definition alone. A lawyer speaking as a lawyer could hardly be expected to go further than Mr. Justice Scott has done. Publicists unhampered by official position may take the further step, and explain what “the ‘honour of the signatory Powers’” means. It means that

every Power will abstain from interfering with the neutrality of the Canal just so long as interest and opportunity combined are not strong enough to induce that Power to break the arrangement. And it would be just the same if the principle of neutrality were reinforced by elaborate Commissions and constabularies. Only the elaborate Commissions and constabularies would be the occasion of all sorts of *tracasseries* in time of peace or times just before war, which *tracasseries* will be avoided by the very simple expedient of having no new Commissions at all.

#### THE EXETER VERDICT.

THE verdict of the jury at the Coroner’s Court inquiry into the causes and consequences of the Exeter disaster leaves a good deal to be desired. The summing-up of the Coroner was clear and emphatic, both as to the law and the function of the jury. “If,” said Mr. HOOPER, “no one was ‘to blame, of course the verdict would be Accidental ‘Death’; but, if any one had been guilty of any omission of ‘duty which amounted to culpable negligence, then the ‘verdict must be one of manslaughter against him or them.’” The jury returned a verdict of Accidental Death, thus exonerating everybody concerned; yet in sundry riders to their verdict they proceeded to blame, not one person only, but several, and the directness and force of their language amount to the severest censure of the local justices and of Mr. PHIPPS, the architect. Apart from the riders the verdict might be intelligible. Considered with them, it may lull the more easy-going section of the public into a belief that censure, unaccompanied by penalties, may be fruitful in future vigilance and reform. This is the utmost that can be said for the Exeter verdict. Nevertheless, it is satisfactory to find that the jury, though in an illogical fashion, considering the terms of their verdict, express the strongest reprehension of the scandalous neglect of duty on the part of the magistrates and of Mr. PHIPPS. Every one acquainted with the condition of our theatres and other buildings of public resort knows how extensive an application the remarks of the Exeter jury may bear. The series of articles on “The State of the London Theatres and Music-Halls” which have appeared in the *Saturday Review* must have opened the eyes of many. Their republication in the form of a pamphlet will reveal to many more the terrible risk incurred by structural defects, and the urgent necessity for that stringent inspection, and remodelling of existing theatres by legislative enactments, which the jury at Exeter recommend. With regard to the Exeter justices, it cannot be said that the jury erred on the side of censure. They blamed them for granting a licence for an unfinished building, for inadequate inspection, for not satisfying themselves that their suggestions were carried out, and for allowing themselves to be misled by the architect in the matter of the exit from the gallery to the second circle. This is a comprehensive indictment, and not a whit too severe. Mr. PHIPPS fares even worse. The jury “deeply deplore” that he should have produced a building with so many defects, especially at the fatal landing outside the gallery pay-office. They consider that Mr. PHIPPS was not entitled to ignore the rules of the Metropolitan Board of Works, and that he would have been wise to have been as good as his word and observed these rules. Further, they find that Mr. PHIPPS failed in his duty in not providing a second exit from the gallery; that his “explanation” of the presence of a hydrant in the “flies” on the plan, and its absence as a matter of fact, was “most unsatisfactory”; and they are surprised at the architect’s suggestion, offered in evidence, that a drop of several feet over an iron railing from the gallery to the second circle constituted a second exit. The jury might well have used more direct language on this last matter. It is not easy to decide whether the audacity or the levity of the ingenious Mr. PHIPPS is more conspicuous in this suggestion. With regard to the magistrates, they seem by their action since the fire to have emphasized their bad eminence. It is certainly not surprising that both jury and Coroner should unite in strong comments on their defiance of the Court. The notion that magistrates are not amenable to the law in Coroners’ Courts was accurately described by Mr. HOOPER as a fallacy. On the whole, though we are not disposed to be sanguine, the verdict and recommendation of the Exeter jury may at least help on reform. It is hard to imagine what further stimulus than the disaster itself can be needed.



## H.M.S. TRAFALGAR.

THE launch of the *Trafalgar* was in every way a satisfactory affair. It was a splendid spectacle to begin with, when the enormous hull of this monster fighting ship slipped with perfect ease into the water; and splendid spectacles are not too common in this world. Then, too, the circumstances are all of a character to please reasonable people. Constructors are fighting and will fight over her, as "it is their nature to," but naval officers who will have to fight in her, which is a much more serious business, are said to like her, and that is of more importance than the disappointment of scientific gentlemen who do not think she is sufficiently a development, or do think that she is not the right kind of development. Then it is said that she and her sister ship the *Nile* are to be the last of the great iron-clads, which is not a good thing in itself, but only because it seems that we have at last got well ahead of the French, and need no longer fear that the balance of power will be against us in line-of-battle ships. The one good reason for not building such vessels is that we have enough of them. The Admiralty can now set steadily to work to make good deficiencies in the number of our cruisers. Whether we are not rather hasty in jumping to the conclusion that the neglect of former years has at last been made up is possibly a question, but there is no doubt that more has been done to fill up the list of battle-ships than of cruisers, and it is now time to go on to the latter class of vessels. The size and complexity of the *Trafalgar* are by themselves enough to make her an object of interest to the lay mind at least. Naval officers may perhaps feel confident of their power to manage the endless machines which will fill her hull at all times and under all circumstances; but on the landsman the account of them leaves a vague impression that in battle her crew will have so much to do looking after their own ship that they will be seriously hampered in fighting. Perhaps this is an ignorant persuasion, and the steam, hydraulic, and electrical machines described in some twenty-five paragraphs of the *Times* report will all work beautifully. Perhaps a good many of them will be left standing unused. Perhaps nobody knows what will happen with them all; but, happily, any possible enemy is in much the same position as ourselves. In any case the *Trafalgar* is a miracle of ingenuity, and so were the arrangements by which she was guided down into the water out of the big shed which she nearly filled from side to side, without hitch or delay. It is in its way a striking illustration of the enormous strength of modern machines that the hydraulic press provided to give the stern of the *Trafalgar* a tilt, in case she did not glide down easily enough, was capable of applying a pressure of 15,000 tons. Equally remarkable was the absolute precision with which every piece of tackle worked throughout, including the bottle of wine. We are not told what the liquor employed was, but the name and the occasion would have justified the expenditure of the best and oldest Clicquot.

The laudatory oratory which is proper to these occasions was on these grounds well justified; but the Admiralty has particular reasons for being proud of the *Trafalgar*. She has been built in a fashion which shows that of late the department has mended many of its old vices, and can rival the private yards, when it chooses to exert itself, both in speed and in economy. The *Trafalgar* has been brought to what may be called the launching point in eighty-five weeks, as against one hundred and forty-six employed on the *Camperdown*, and one hundred and eighty-three and a half on the *Colossus*. This in itself is a notable improvement; but its full merit is not adequately shown by the time spent in building these three vessels respectively. The *Trafalgar* is a larger ship than either of the other two. Her launching weight is 5,220 tons, as against 4,330 in the case of the *Camperdown*, and 3,953 in the case of the *Colossus*. More work has therefore been done in less time. Along with greater speed, and partly because of it, there has been a much smaller expenditure on the *Trafalgar*. The total outlay hitherto has been 76,080*l.*, as against 135,741*l.* spent on the *Colossus*, and 97,001*l.* on the *Camperdown*. The *Inflexible* at a launching weight not much short of two thousand tons less than the *Trafalgar* cost about 400*l.* more. Fall in the price of labour and materials accounts for some of this economy, but part of it ought undoubtedly to be put to the credit of the Admiralty. Lord GEORGE HAMILTON and his colleagues have shown a very genuine desire to do their work well. No department of the Government has displayed more administrative

faculty, more resolution to do things quickly and well, or more courage in facing unpopularity. It is well that they should have their reward in the shape of credit for increasing the strength of the navy. To some extent they are reaping the benefit of the scare and the special vote of a few years ago, and some proportion of the honour should be given to Admiral GRAHAM's Committee. Still, it takes some skill to reap the harvest, even when another has sown it, and the present harvest is at least partly of Lord GEORGE HAMILTON's own sowing—his, and his colleagues of the Board. We have not such frequent opportunities of praising either of the great spending departments that praise need be stinted when it can be given.

## THE CLOSE OF THE SESSION.

IN the general satisfaction at the close of the Session, little attention was paid to the record of its events and results in the Speech from the Throne. In style the Speech was so much superior to the average of such documents as to suggest the conjecture that it was composed by the PRIME MINISTER himself. At the beginning of a Session several Ministers are supposed to contribute paragraphs relating to their respective departments. When Parliament is prorogued, not only all members of the Cabinet, but the two Houses and the great body of newspaper readers, already know as much as the Premier himself of the history which it is his business to condense into a few well-sounding sentences. The author of the recent Speech might have recorded a melancholy series of disasters, occurring not merely to himself and to his colleagues, but to all who are concerned for the honour and efficiency of the House of Commons. It was more judicious and more conformable to custom to express a conventional hope that all might end well, and therefore in some sense might be well. The smallest part of the ill fortune which might be publicly deplored consisted in the scanty list of legislative promises or proposals. Most of the measures which have been suppressed or postponed were intended rather to satisfy assumed popular demands than to improve the condition of the country. Eight or nine years have passed since Mr. GLADSTONE enumerated four times as many reforms which were, in his opinion, necessary or urgent, probably because they had not been introduced by Lord BEACONSFIELD's Government. Most of the changes which were then enumerated remain to be accomplished, and some of them may possibly be hereafter found beneficial. The present Government had resolved in earnest to promote a Local Government Bill, and it was not the fault of Mr. RITCHIE or his colleagues that no time could be found for the measure. The secret of the provisions of the Bill has been well kept, and it must be admitted that the Ministers have not been embarrassed by any premature display of anxiety on the subject. At the end of the Session the House of Commons at last displayed a certain amount of legislative energy. The Irish Land Bill was understood to be part of the price of the Crimes Bill. Its questionable character was scarcely denied by the Government, which for political reasons unwillingly introduced it. The Mines Regulation Bill ought to be practically useful, as its provisions were fully discussed by members who had a special knowledge of the subject. Some oversights were corrected by the House of Lords, which has consequently been exposed to a fresh outburst of malignity on the part of agitators within and without the walls of Parliament. Among several measures which were passed by the House of Lords, to be abandoned at the end of the Session, the most pressing was the Bill for transferring to landowners the burden of actual payment of the tithes. The ultimate incidence of the charge would not have been affected by the Bill, but the difficulties which had arisen in Wales proved the inconvenience of the arrangement by which the immediate liability had generally been imposed on the tenants. A more comprehensive measure, affecting the descent of landed property, had been carried through the House of Lords by the LORD CHANCELLOR, and if the Government had attempted to force it through the House of Commons, there can be little doubt that the Bill would have been defeated by the familiar process of obstruction. The Land Reform League, from the first condemned the scheme on the frivolous pretext of its limited scope, and on the real ground that it would have deprived agrarian projectors of a valuable grievance. The abolition of primogeniture in cases of

intestacy would have had little practical effect, inasmuch as landowners seldom neglect to provide for their families by will; but zealous reformers who have spent their lives in denouncing the bad effects of the existing law might have been expected to support a change which they had incessantly demanded. The provisions of the Bill for the registration of titles was more important; but a compulsory measure, though it is probably inevitable, will be extremely unwelcome to landowners.

The Parliamentary proceedings which had attracted universal and indignant attention could not properly be noticed in the Speech from the throne. It is indeed impossible to silence indecent comments by members of one House on the more dignified and thoughtful proceedings of the other. The offenders scarcely understand that their conduct is at the same time ill-bred and unconstitutional. The advisers of the Crown would be guilty of a similar offence if they put in the mouth of the Sovereign criticisms on the manners and proceedings of the House of Commons. The QUEEN is not supposed to know that the debates have been to a great extent conducted by Parliamentary "roughs" who receive negative, and sometimes positive, encouragement from the official leaders of the Opposition. The unworthy successors of more respectable members have not succeeded in their immediate object of defeating the Crimes Bill, and they care little or nothing for the abandonment of other legislative measures. In their main contention they have to a great extent succeeded. It was their professed purpose to show that the business of Parliament could not be carried on except on condition of deference to an organized body of malcontents. Some of them have probably welcomed the opportunity of throwing discredit on the system of Parliamentary government. They have undoubtedly degraded the House of Commons by their policy, and still more thoroughly by their language and their manners. The dignified repose which was enjoyed by former Speakers has, by no fault of the present incumbent of the office, been exchanged for constant vigilance and for frequent intervention for the purpose of suppressing violence and disorder. The daily reports of the newspapers, though they reveal many deliberate personalities and many rude interruptions, are necessarily weeded before publication of some of the worst outrages on decency. If the proceedings of the most unscrupulous offenders had not admitted of a simpler explanation, it might have been supposed they were bent on justifying to their English colleagues Mr. GLADSTONE's proposal of excluding the representatives of Ireland from the Imperial Parliament. Mr. BRIGHT is not the only Liberal member who holds that the most tolerable provision of the Home Rule Bill was that which has, according to some interpreters of Mr. GLADSTONE's dialect, been repudiated by its author.

Notwithstanding the unsatisfactory experience of the Session, its result has disappointed the hopes of the Opposition. Mr. GLADSTONE and his lieutenants had confidently believed that the Government majority would be dissolved in consequence of differences of opinion between its larger and smaller section. They also relied on the supposed weakness of the Ministers in the House of Commons after the capricious secession of Lord RANDOLPH CHURCHILL. Neither of their expectations has been realized. Lord HARTINGTON and Mr. CHAMBERLAIN voted for the Crimes Bill, and defended their conduct in effective speeches. Mr. SMITH, though he takes no prominent part in debate, has discharged his functions as leader of the House with unflinching firmness and temper. Mr. GOSCHEN has shown himself a match for Sir W. HARCOURT and Mr. MORLEY, and he has encountered Mr. GLADSTONE himself on equal terms. The brunt of the struggle with the Irish members and their allies has fallen on Mr. BALFOUR. When he succeeded Sir M. HICKS-BEACH, he had taken only a secondary part in debate, and his Parliamentary reputation was that rather of a graceful amateur than of a formidable combatant. During the Session, from the time when the debates on Procedure were closed, Mr. BALFOUR has, in virtue of his office, more and more taken the lead on Irish questions. It was evidently the object of his coarser assailants to wear him out by pertinacious insolence, and their English confederates at first attempted to treat him with supercilious condescension. Mr. BALFOUR's physical strength fortunately lasted till his Parliamentary labours were completed, and an unaffected and good-humoured disdain for his most violent adversaries seemed to secure him against nervous irritation. As the discussions proceeded he warmed to his work, and his speeches in the last debates of the Session were by

general consent allowed to be his best. No more courageous Minister has undertaken the conduct of Irish affairs; and it is only to be regretted that his administrative duties in the recess will be not less burdensome than his long-continued struggles in the House of Commons. If the QUEEN's Speech had been an historical summary of the proceedings of Parliament, it might have stated with truth that the Government is stronger at the end of the Session than at the beginning. A tone of complacency was more appropriate to the formal mention of foreign affairs. The provisional agreement with the Government of the United States for the reference of disputed questions to a joint Commission may be regarded with satisfaction. The settlement of the Afghan boundary is mentioned in terms which seem to imply both an intention and a reasonable hope of avoiding or postponing territorial differences with Russia.

#### ESSAYS, ESSAYISTS, AND ESSAYISM.

MR. FRANCIS N. ZABRISKIE contributes an instructive discourse on "The Essay as a Literary Form and Quality" to the current number of the *New Princeton Review*, an American periodical now in the sixty-second year of a high-toned existence. From XENOPHON and PLUTARCH even unto the "Easy Chair" of *Harper's Monthly* the ocean of literature is navigated by this light-hearted and erudite voyager, with results that must rank him among the most courageous of pioneers and the most daring of discoverers. Thus at least will it appear to the curious and remote critics and commentators of effete Europe. It is true that Mr. ZABRISKIE pursues a somewhat dusky and erratic course, ultimately landing, like ÆNEAS and the Sibyl piloted by CHARON, in a Cimmerian waste of jungle and fog; but these little drawbacks are atoned for by the joys of the voyage, the wild surmise, and the sweet, strange thrill of discovery. We start with definition, to wander into illustration, and finally come suddenly on unsuspected truths. What is the essay? Who is the essayist? And what is the essential quality, or "essayism," of the essay? To define a thing by what it is not appears to be an irresistible temptation to Mr. ZABRISKIE. "The essayist is not the commercial traveller, nor the scientific explorer, but rather the excursionist of literature," though why he should belong to the last more than to either or both the rejected and equally useful classes surpasses conjecture. But, as our author truly observes, "You never know what a genuine essayist will say next." He goes hither and thither like a bird or a bee, and what Mr. ZABRISKIE says next, emphasized by italics, has the "surprise and unexpectedness" proper to the essay. "It may be said that the style is the essay," so far, at least, as quality is concerned, and this brings him to that mysterious literary essence known as essayism which pervades all literature. You may detect this "essential 'attar' of essayism in COUSIN and MAX MÜLLER, in SHAKESPEARE and COWPER, in BEECHER and PHILLIPS, in CERVANTES and SHORTHOUSE, in JEREMY TAYLOR, WICKLIFFE, FREDERICK W. ROBERTSON, *cum multis aliis*; but you will not find this subtle quality where ignorantly you would seek it, in BURKE, for instance, or in "ALISON, JEFFREY, BROUGHAM, and even MACAULAY." The essays of these writers are sermons, or political tracts, or "abridged histories," and the true essay of essayism is not what WORCESTER defines it, "a short treatise or dissertation, a tract." Through many a page does our pitiless preceptor formulate what the essay is *not*, but as for what it is we get "no forrader." "Perish the thought," he exclaims, "that the essayist's pen should be guilty of tracts. And for him 'to dissertate' is to be damned." Then is the gentle ELIA in a very bad way, not to mention MILTON and "the two undoubting THOMASES, he of the *Urn Burial* and he of the *Holy and Profane State*."

Unconcerned by this *ne plus ultra*, our author chatters cheerfully about the characteristics of essayists, "this serene army (or, if you prefer, this light-armed legion) of literature." BACON is prominent in the review, and here Mr. ZABRISKIE falls into a strange misapprehension as to those "certain brief notes" of which BACON's essays are compacted. By notes BACON meant observations, and not the mere jottings of a commonplace book, such as go to the making of the Emersonian essay, which Mr. ZABRISKIE shows is a pretty piece of cookery and carpentry, formed of note-books "boiled down" and an "ingenious jointing together" of scrap-books. Nothing is pleasanter in the



Princeton Reviewer's survey than his catholicity. He masses great men and little in the seething exuberance of his admiration. He contemplates JEAN JACQUES "at his quiet country seat at Wootton" wherein Mr. ZABRISKIE has surely estated ROUSSEAU somewhat at the cost of one Mr. DAVENPORT. He finds BACON, BURTON, EMERSON, and LEIGH HUNT treating of men and manners "precisely as did STEELE and ADDISON in the high noon of the English essay, or as the Abbé ROUX and the 'Easy Chair' of *Harper's Monthly*." BURTON is introduced as the dear "old vicar of Oxford"—when did the rector of Segrave and vicar of St. Thomas obtain this unusual preferment?—and his *Anatomy* is spoken of as "the inspiration of MILTON's *L'Allegro* and *Il Penseroso*," and "the standing crib for LAURENCE STERNE," as, indeed, it has been for other naughty plagiarists not of MOLIÈRE's stamp. By the way, that droll creature "LORRY SLIM" is severely scolded—"a contemptible fellow, and a disgrace to the cloth." LEIGH HUNT, "always HORACE SKIMPOLE in print," is "pre-eminently the poet-essayist, as HORACE SKIMPOLE's Roman namesake was the 'essay-poet.'" How nice it must be to have a Roman namesake! Perhaps, after all, we should read, "*The essay is the style*," not "*The style is the essay*," and this essay on essayists is undiluted essayism. Best and brightest of discoveries, the choicest of the Princeton Reviewer's gift, designedly reserved to the last, for its rare unexpectedness and surprise, is comprised in a list of essayists who followed VOLTAIRE. Like all great truths, it is modestly announced. Possibly it may meet with carping criticism, the common fate of superior discernment. "We can merely add suggestively," says Mr. ZABRISKIE, "the names of VOLTAIRE's great followers, with the titles of some of their works—"D'ALEMBERT and DIDEROT, DUCLOS' *Reflexions*, MME. DE STAËL'S *Memoirs* (sic), the *Advises* of the Marchioness DE LAMBERT, the 'whimsical and perpetual digressions' of RABELAIS, and the miscellaneous writings of St. MARC GIRARDIN." Thus does Mr. ZABRISKIE dissipate at one neat stroke all the labours of Rabelaisian biographers. The manner of it is so gay and casual, the real import of this staggering announcement is hard to realize at sight. The humourist of Chinon a follower of VOLTAIRE, *Gargantua* and *Pantagruel* creations of the eighteenth century—possibly of the nineteenth century—why does not Mr. ZABRISKIE put RABELAIS at once into some American "Men of the Time"?

#### ARMY RETURNS.

THE General Annual Return of the Army for any year is not in itself a very instructive document. Long lists of figures are very useful by way of illustration, and sometimes as a check—that is, when one person makes a statement and another arranges the statistics—but taken by themselves they may mean anything or next to nothing. Now the General Annual Return is all figures with no statement attached which they can either support or check. The tables show that there are so many men or horses, here or elsewhere, but have nothing to say as to how far they are available for service, or supplied with the stores needed to equip them for the field. On these points the General Annual Return has nothing to tell. Looking merely at what it does show, the picture may be said to be fairly satisfactory. Small as our army is, it reaches the respectable figure of 211,474 men of all arms reported present with the colours, and presumably fit for service. Behind them is a Reserve of from seventy to eighty thousand, more or less drilled men. Of this grand total 71,810 officers and men are stationed in England. The whole of the Reserve is available at home according to theory. Putting the First and Militia Reserve at 70,000 men, which allows a percentage for waste, we ought to be able to command the services of an army of 140,000 at home on the outbreak of a war. Now if all is good that is up to this is a very decent force. It is even, relatively to the vast armies of the Continent, a larger force than we have ever been able to muster at the beginning of hostilities before, and, in so far, we ought to be satisfied. Again, the returns of recruiting show that there is no difficulty in obtaining the services of as many men as are wanted to keep the army at its proper nominal strength. The elastic conditions of our new system of enlistment do seem to prove attractive, and there is solid reason to believe that numbers enlist for three years with the colours and nine with the Reserve who would not enter the

army if they were bound to remain in it for twenty or even ten years. It is also satisfactory to see that drunkenness in the ranks seems to be decreasing, not very rapidly, but steadily, which is the better way of the two.

This is all excellent well as far as it goes, but by this time the world is aware that it does not go very far. Men in a paper list are not necessarily effective men in the ranks by any means. Out of the 71,810 British soldiers stationed in England itself, exclusive of Ireland, Scotland, and the Channel Islands, how many are really old enough and sufficiently drilled to prove efficient in war? This is the sort of question which it is well to put at the sight of these lists. If a test of even moderate severity were applied, it would assuredly be found necessary to deduct at least twenty-five thousand of the 71,000 as being too young and too weak for the work of a campaign, though they might get through a single battle well enough. The force actually present in England is the residuum of the British army, with the exception of the special corps. It contains all the men who cannot be sent on garrison duties in India or the colonies. It is none the less that part of the whole army which would inevitably be called upon in war time to reinforce the garrison of India, or take the field against an enemy. Every deduction which has to be made from it represents so much sheer loss to the effective fighting power of the country. It would be a distinct improvement in the annual return if the table giving the number of men present in England were subdivided into sections, of which one would show how many of them are drilled and over twenty, and how many are undrilled and under twenty. Then we should know better what the 71,000 odd really represent. But there is something even more important to be discovered, if one only could, before taking the British army at the paper valuation of the Annual Return. Even if thirty thousand men are struck off the part of the army stationed in England as not really efficient, we should still with the Reserve be able to collect 110,000 men with the colours—that is, three complete army corps and the best part of a fourth. What has been done to enable this not inconsiderable force to take the field properly organized and equipped? The Annual Return is inevitably silent on the subject, but if it had to answer, the War Office might find the result painful. It is doubtful whether one army corps could be put in the field in a really fit state, and it is certain that two could not possibly be got ready under months of work. Guns, harness, transport, and horses would all be wanting at the critical moment. As long as this is the case, it is absurd to describe the army as being other than a mob of armed and more or less drilled men. A great deal has been done unquestionably to secure men—so much, indeed, that the war strength of the force has outrun our stores and overflowed our organization—but this is only the beginning of the work. Until measures have been taken to form the men rapidly into effectively-equipped corps at the very declaration of war, the army can hardly be said to deserve the name.

#### BRITISH SEAMEN AT BILBAO.

THE case of the sailor PARKIN, of the *Circassia*, attracted some little attention at the time it occurred—enough, at least, to enable everybody to remember vaguely that he was shot in what seemed a dreadfully needless way to Englishmen. PARKIN was drunk and noisy, according to all accounts; and being on the Mole at Bilbao (where he ought not to have been), was summarily shot down by a Spanish carabiniere. This was naturally horrible to Englishmen, who are accustomed to see their own police knocked down, kicked, and half murdered by violent roughs without leave or opportunity to use arms in their own defence. To people who are better acquainted with foreign ports it was not surprising. Spanish sentries will often fire on small provocation, and on this occasion there had been provocation of a rather gross kind. PARKIN himself was, it would seem, only drunk, and bent on straying from his ship; but there had been a bad riot on the Mole among English sailors earlier in the day. In all probability the officer in charge of the post of carabineers had given peremptory orders that it was not to be allowed to begin again. PARKIN unfortunately seemed to be intent on the same kind of conduct, and suffered in the place of worse offenders. This view of the case is indirectly supported by the excellent authority of H. B. M. Consul Mr. HORACE

YOUNG, who is not without decisiveness in his opinions and his language. Mr. YOUNG, in answer to inquiries from the Foreign Office, has drawn a picture of the state of Bilbao which is not creditable to the British merchant shipping which frequents the port. He has no hesitation in declaring that a large proportion of the British seamen who turn up there are "the most drunken, quarrelsome, and obnoxious class of men in the world," and that, so far from being the victims of Spanish oppression, they are the terror of the place, and are treated with a lenity which, in Mr. YOUNG's opinion, would not be shown anywhere else in the world. This is vigorous language, and some percentage of discount may be allowed on it in consideration of the fact that H.B.M. Consul is much and frequently irritated by the delinquent and too often blasphemous mariner. Still, with all due respect to the Cardiff Chamber of Commerce, which at the sight of Mr. YOUNG's statement has been clamouring for his head in a charger, we are inclined to believe that he is not far from the truth. Bilbao has no proper police, and is frequented by large numbers of English steamers. Unfortunately English steamers in these days often carry very great blackguards in their crews. Where such fellows can get at bad liquor, and have no police to deal with, they are very likely to behave in the fashion described by Mr. YOUNG. Under these circumstances it is rather surprising that none of them should have been shot before PARKIN. Some of them seem to deserve it, and our patriotism, which we hope is ardent, does not go the length of believing that the British "packet rat" has a right to be a bully and ruffian, even in Spain.

#### THE LONDON POOR.

WHEN a statistician declares, and not only once but repeatedly, that he considers his statistics of very little value, it may seem almost superfluous to take notice of them. This is the case with Mr. OGLE's Blue-book on the condition of the working class in four London districts—St. George's in the East, parts of Battersea, parts of Hackney, and part of Deptford. The Superintendent of Statistics at the General Register Office not only begins by a warning as to the doubtful character of the information he has collected, but at the end expressly declares that in his opinion "these returns are of very small statistical value." As they were based on the voluntary and unchecked statements of the workmen who were called on in these four districts to give just what account of themselves they chose, Mr. OGLE was doubtless well within the truth in his description. The collectors did not so much gather information about the condition of the poor in these districts as a very considerable mass of stories which their informants thought they would like to have believed about themselves. Of course this has a kind of value as showing what the poor do think it creditable to confess. From that point of view there is some value in their evidence. It is, for instance, noteworthy that there was a manifest unwillingness to acknowledge the receipt of charity either from the rates or from private persons. The great majority of unemployed men declared that they were helped by relatives. To some extent this was, no doubt, true, for the poor are creditably ready to help one another. Still their answers are rather a sign that the old belief that the receipt of charity is more or less a degradation is more vigorous still than was supposed. Again, there was of course no means of finding out how far the very large proportion of workmen who described themselves as married could have produced their "lines." Mr. OGLE shows that the answers of men who represented themselves as unemployed were provably inaccurate, though he very sensibly adds that the inaccuracies were often rather due to the ignorant use of language than to a deliberate intention to deceive. Not the least surprising, and probably the most trustworthy, part of the statistics are the sections which give the percentage of foreigners working in London. They only amount to 5 per cent. of the 29,451 workmen examined. Here the collectors, who were authorized to reject manifest untruths, had an easy test to apply. The result of their inquiries will surprise the worthy people who think that London is being flooded with foreign cheap labour. Five per cent. must fairly represent what has been the proportion of foreigners to natives in London for generations. Here is a proof of the hollowness of some recent agitation. Again, it appears that the largest proportion of foreign workmen is to be found among the sugar-bakers.

From this it appears that the sugar business can still give more work than Englishmen are prepared to take, at least at the market rate of wages. But a man who can refuse even badly paid employment cannot be in the lowest state of destitution.

#### NOTTINGHAM PARK AND KENSINGTON GARDENS.

SOME poet or historian of the future may weave into a romantic legend the tale of two queens; or, the landgrabbers of the last century. The great poet Tickell wrote about Kenna's Kingdom, and mixed up "Neptune, Venus, and Nicodemus" in a way almost worthy of the genius of Father Prout, yet all about Kensington Gardens; but his wildest flights, being acknowledged by his own imagination, hardly equal the inventions—to use no more unparliamentary term—of the ordinary topographical writers on the subject. A selection from their accounts of the origin and growth of the delightful tract of woodland and meadow which we call by the somewhat misleading name of Kensington Gardens, shows us such a curious example of the way in which London history is written that it is well worth the slight trouble involved in making it. We all know that Kensington Gardens do not essentially differ from Hyde Park, as they both have avenues and rows of trees and flower-beds in divers places. The boundaries, too, of the Gardens are well known and definite. The sunk fence which divides them from the Park is familiar. It is not necessary to describe them in any detail. The most ornamental parts now are the small flower-garden close to the south side of the Palace and the walk which leads to the eastern entrance. Otherwise the so-called "Gardens" are simply an open park. Considering how well known they are, and how long they have been freely open to the public, the legend alluded to above is the more strange. Writer after writer has repeated it or added to it.

Cunningham, for example, tells us "these gardens originally consisted of only 26 acres; Queen Anne added 30 acres, and Queen Caroline (the wife of George II.) 300."

Leigh Hunt is equally circumstantial. Sir Heneage Finch, the Recorder, "possessed but fifteen acres of ground, which Sir Heneage Finch, afterwards Earl of Nottingham, increased by a grant that was made him out of Hyde Park." Further on he tells us—we are quoting from *The Old Court Suburb*—King William III. enlarged the grounds "to the extent of 26 acres; Anne added 30 acres; Queen Caroline, wife of George II., added 300."

Mr. Larwood, in his *Story of the London Parks*, improved on Leigh Hunt, because he tells us where the Queen got the three hundred acres. She took liberties with Hyde Park; "she curtailed it of not less than 300 acres, which were added to the Kensington Gardens."

Lastly, not to multiply quotations, all to the same purpose, we may see what Mr. Walford says in *Old and New London*. After the usual statement that the Gardens, when bought by William III., did not exceed twenty-six acres, he informs us that Queen Anne added "some thirty acres more," and goes on to observe that Wise "was employed by Queen Caroline, consort of George II., to plant and lay out on a larger scale than had hitherto been attempted the ground which had been added to the Gardens by encroaching upon Hyde Park."

It is, to say the least, curious to have to pronounce these statements one and all to be absolutely false. They are false historically and false topographically. Twenty-six and thirty make fifty-six, and with three hundred come to three hundred and fifty-six. Kensington Gardens, therefore, according to Cunningham, Leigh Hunt, Mr. Larwood, and Mr. Walford, cover three hundred and fifty-six acres, or within forty-four acres of the ground covered by Hyde Park. This, it might be supposed, could easily be verified; but not one of these writers or the dozens who have followed them ever thought of testing their assertions by measurement. Had they done so, they would have found that as nearly as possible Kensington Gardens cover two hundred and forty acres, or rather more. There is considerable discrepancy between fact and fancy here. If we add the ground covered by the Palace and its outbuildings, we are still unable to make the sum more than two hundred and fifty. This is merely a topographical question, and can be easily verified. It is perfectly plain that, whatever William III. and Queen Anne may have done, Queen Caroline did not add three hundred acres, because there are not three hundred acres in the whole place.

But we may go very much further than this. We may assert fearlessly, not on topographical, but on purely historical grounds, that not one single acre has been added to Kensington Gardens since William III. bought the estate from Lord Nottingham in 1689. The false statements quoted above have gradually grown up one on the top of another for half a century or thereabouts. They all seem to start from the same initial mistake. No account is taken of the existence of Nottingham Park. William III., soon after his accession, looked about him for a house, somewhere in the neighbourhood of London, yet sufficiently out of the bustle and crush of the city. The existence of a large park was indispensable, but the house could be added to or entirely rebuilt to fit it for the residence of a Court. The parish books, still extant at Kensington, record in 1689 the payment of five shillings "spent that day King William came to see Holland House, to take it." Holland House had been "to let" for a long



time, and had been inhabited by Lord Fairfax, William Penn, and Sir John Chardin, among others. "Downright Shippen" and Morice, who married Bishop Atterbury's daughter, were subsequent tenants. A great difficulty about Holland House would have been the cost of enlarging or altering so ornate a building. There was greater attraction about Nottingham House, and the park, as it adjoined Hyde Park, would be found very convenient. The King could, and did, drive from St. James's or from Whitehall through St. James's Park, Hyde Park, and Nottingham Park without going off his own ground or out of the parish of St. Margaret, Westminster. Nottingham Park had been formed by Sir Heneage Finch, the father of Lord Chancellor Nottingham, who bought the ground from a family named Coppin. The Coppins had other lands within the boundaries of Kensington parish. To round off the estate nine acres of Kensington at the north-west corner were included; on these nine acres now stand half a dozen of the houses in Palace Gardens. Sir Heneage left the place to his younger son, a physician; but the second Sir Heneage bought out the doctor, and in 1662 obtained leave from Charles II. to amend his eastern frontier. He took out a grant of "the ditch and fence" between Hyde Park and his own possessions, a hundred and fifty rods in length and ten feet in width, with the idea, no doubt, of throwing open the view from his own windows. The improvement must have been very great, though the sunk fence, or "Haha," was not thought of till later. From that date there has been no alteration in the size of Kensington Gardens, except at the Albert Memorial. When the second Lord Nottingham sold his house, grounds, and park to William III. they were precisely as they are now in dimensions. Neither Queen Anne nor Queen Caroline added to them or took from them. The oldest maps show them as they are; and a map of Hyde Park, of which a copy is in the Grace collection at the British Museum, shows that the western boundary in 1725, before Queen Caroline's unworthy husband came to the throne, was precisely what it remained when she died in 1737, and what it is still.

We have yet to see how the strange legend of land-grabbing grew up. The blame must probably be laid upon Faulkner, who wrote a *History of Kensington*, which was published in 1820. Forgetting that Nottingham House and its park were not in the parish of Kensington, he makes a sad mess of Coppin's lands and Finch's. Evelyn describes correctly from sight in 1691 a neat villa, "having to it the park, and a straight new way through this park." And Bowack, writing in 1705 of Queen Anne's improvements, is very clear. "So frugal," he says, "have they been of the room they had that there is not an inch but what is well improved, the whole with the house not being above twenty-six acres." He is referring solely to the gardens, the flower-gardens that is, close about the house, the whole of which lay to the westward of the Broad Walk. When, later on, we hear of the great additions Queen Caroline made, we learn that she took in some more land and made a larger garden, taking it, of course, from the park, not Hyde Park, but the park now called Kensington Gardens, which was attached to Nottingham House when William III. bought it. The three hundred acres mentioned by Cunningham must be of his own invention, or else have originated in a misprint. But Queen Caroline made walks all over the park; she opened the Serpentine, where there had previously been only a line of dirty pools along the course of the West Bourne, she raised a great mound near where the Albert Memorial stands now, and put a temple on the top. Lord Hervey was too blind to take much notice of what was going on, but he tells us of the Queen's delight in it, and certainly says not a word of acres "filched from Hyde Park." He complains in 1736 that "there are two roads through the Park, but the new one is so convex and the old one so concave that by this extreme of faults they agree in the common of being, like the high road, impassable." It is, perhaps, too much to expect that the story will be laid to rest at once. It has appeared in too many books and has been too widely circulated, especially by people who are glad to accuse a queen of taking what did not belong to her. But it is a little odd that Cunningham's figures should so long have been accepted, although the true measurements are to be found, not only on every map, but in more than one published book. Queen Caroline's character stands so high in public estimation, that it could easily bear a little detraction; but it is satisfactory, at least, to be able to show that in one important particular she was not guilty of the sin so stupidly laid to her charge.

#### DOMINE, SALVUM FAC—.

IN putting up the above pious prayer it is not ourselves for whom we desire salvation—salvation from our friends. It is only in the first place, and as it were preliminarily, that we hope that the late Lord Byron may be saved from the tender mercies of a friend of his signing himself "C. S.," who has written to the *Daily News* in the celebrated matter of "There let him lay." There does not appear to be much absolute harm about "C. S." He should not, indeed, say that the *Saturday Review* "admitted its fault." It admitted none, for it had committed none; unless, indeed, "C. S." thinks that a well-known sacred writer was guilty of actual atheism when he used certain words which imply the

atheistic conclusion. "The fool" was responsible for those words, not the sacred writer; and Lord Byron (though not directly named, because the *Saturday Review*, approximating in that respect, it must be owned, to the fool, thought it needless) was responsible for "There let him lay." But "C. S."—a frightful example of the friend now in question—undertakes to defend his *Lo* for that little location. He thinks that "possibly the *Saturday Review* is not aware that Byron's guilt in this matter is not universally admitted." Possibly "C. S." is not aware that his defence is nearly as old as the hills, though not nearly as solid. Who first invented it we do not know; but we knew it perfectly well when we used (as we intend on occasion to use again) a phrase which is of considerable interest, because it shows how bad an English scholar may on occasion become—a greatest living poet. The amicable salvation of Byron depends on taking away the stop at "lay," and running on the sense to the next stanza. If any one will take down his *Childs Harold* and look at the passage, he will see that the good friends who thus vindicate Byron from a very common, though quite inexcusable, solecism in grammar make him instead talk sheer nonsense, make him speak of "laying armaments" (which no Englishman ever dreamt of doing), make him represent a shipwrecked wretch as laying armaments which "thunderstrike," "bidding nations quake," and so forth, and finally make him entirely spoil and split up the effect of one of his own best stanzas, introducing at the end an otiose "these" which can only be justified by the pause at "lay." It is sufficiently absurd that any one should have to argue a point which to any competent student of English literature admits of no argument; and we make our condolences and apologies to the Noble Poet in Hades for having brought on him such a maladroitness.

But "C. S." is only maladroitness, and very likely he may be a most excellent person. The persons of whom we were chiefly thinking in selecting the above title are not excellent, and are a great deal more than maladroitness. If there are any Home Rulers—there are very probably some—who hold that deplorable faith with a certain decency, they must pray very vigorously and very loudly, to be saved from certain friends of theirs who have been making their appearance this week. We do not mean Mr. Gladstone, with his watchword of "Remember Mitchelstown" (that is to say, Remember how certain agitators, English and Irish, organized a riot against the police, and how certain legislators, English and Irish, hurried up to town immediately to make capital against the Government out of the self-defence of the police). The Home Ruler *qua* Home Ruler of course sees nothing wrong in this; and *qua* Gladstonian he is bound to see nothing wrong in anything that comes from Mr. Gladstone. We do not refer to those clumsy Moonlighters who not only did not shoot Sexton, as they were sent to do, but also left Sexton's mother alive to tell the curious tale of boycotting and outrage which she told in court last Wednesday. They, of course, are martyrs; and even the awkwardness of martyrs must be forgiven. But exceptions and explanations as in these two cases do not apply to the letter of "Michael O'Connell, Admr.," who writes from "The Presbytery, Tuam," to the *Times*, and to the case of Mr. Harrington, of the Irish Bar and of the English Parliament, who has been exhibiting to an admiring world the stuff that Irish barristers and Parliament men are made of when they are formed by the plastic hand of nature to be ornaments of Nationalism. We owe some apology to Michael O'Connell, Admr., for classing him with Mr. Harrington. The Admr. has engaged in a controversy with Mr. Macartney, M.P.—a controversy which he carries on with some Hibernian heat of language, but with an apparent desire to be as fair as he can. Indeed, he distinctly states that "he would be sorry to have done, even unconsciously, an injustice" to Mr. Balfour himself, and you can't expect a greater stretch of Christianity than that from any Admr. in Christendom. The Admr., however, "unconsciously"—to use his own word—makes a very naïf exposure of the standard of Christianity, law, and logic (he talks a good deal about logic) which prevails among Admr. of his persuasion. The matter in dispute, it seems, concerns the blocking up the passage to a well so as not to give water supply to a "grabber." Nobody seems to be quite sure whether this mild discipline was actually exercised or not. The Admr., as we understand him (for he is not very clear) says that the charge does not apply, at any rate in the sacred city of John of Tchume, though it may or may not apply elsewhere. But it is not of this rather obscure question that we would speak. The Admr. is very indignant with Mr. Macartney, saying that "he [Mr. Macartney] knows that for these new-made crimes, if charged against us, we would have to herd with the offscourings of villainy in the common gaol." Well; here again we get into contentious matter. We should ourselves be disposed to say that if the "new-made crime" of blocking a man's access to the second, if not the first, necessary of life, because he is an honest man and pays rent to an owner for something that owner has let him, were proved against the Admr. and the Branch; and if the Admr. and the Branch were, in consequence, sent to herd with the offscourings of villainy, why that then it would be eminently a case of "birds of a feather." But, again, this is not the point. The point is, that an apparently honest man writing from a "Presbytery" (which we take to be an abode of clerical persons) calls such an atrocity as that referred to a "new-made crime," and is quite indignant that it should be made, and that those who are charged with it should be called on to herd with, let us say a man who stole a loaf because he was hungry. "Is any thirsty, and do we wall up the passage to the

well so that he may not drink, and do you call that a crime?" says the Admr. in effect.

A very different person is that ornament of the Bar, Counsellor Harrington. It may be remembered that in the last and gloomier parts of *The Water Babies* Tom is taken to see a very unpleasant place in which the offences of villainy (as the Admr. has it) are being taught not to do so. He asks why certain other offences are not there, and is informed that they are worse off still "because they knew they were doing wrong." It is quite possible that folk like the Admr. have worked themselves into such a state of mind that they really see in the refusal of the necessities of life a blameless proceeding which it is atrocious tyranny to make into a "crime." It would be paying Mr. Harrington a very bad compliment to class him with them. When, before a coroner who either dares not or will not interfere, he calls servants of the Queen and, what is more, witnesses who are under the special protection of the Queen's law, "villains," "murderers," "scoundrels," "ruffians," and "liars," when he threatens to kick them, "to get them the punishment of murder," and so forth, he knows very well what he is about, at least in one way. Mr. Harrington serves his masters the League, not with blackthorns, but with blackguardly language, and he knows that a large number of persons in Ireland will admire him for so doing. That may be so, and it may be as necessary for a man in Mr. Harrington's position to indulge in a little Billingsgate now and then as for his colleagues, the representatives of the League on the other side of the water, to indulge from time to time in a little dynamite. The object is in each case to please the subscribers and give them something for their money. But we are not quite so sure that Home Rulers may not have reckoned without their host in giving Mr. Harrington a commission of bargee talk in this way. Miss Amy Mander, undergraduate of Newnham, member of the Wolverhampton School Board, and eulogist of the "enthusiastic but amenable" cavalry and bludgeonry of Tipperary, may admire Mr. Harrington; Mr. Conybeare may admire him; Mr. Labouchere may admire him. His language is very much in the style of Mr. Thorold Rogers (though unrelieved by the occasional humour of that politician), and Mr. Thorold Rogers has his admirers. But we believe it to be no secret that party managers do not regard Mr. Thorold Rogers as a very desirable candidate, and the English electorate must have reached even a lower level than the worst of aristocrats supposes if it likes such language and such conduct as Mr. Harrington's at Mitchelstown. All mankind know that they may some time or other find themselves in a witness-box, and they have a shrewd notion that it is not well to encourage privileged persons (for Mr. Harrington in his capacity of barrister is as privileged as any bloated peer of them all) to call other people, under shelter of privilege, scoundrels, murderers, liars, ruffians, and so forth. The dear delight of seeing a policeman bullied may make an Irishman put up with anything. But, except actual roughs and criminals (who are not generally voters), few people in England have any particular dislike to a policeman as such, and a great many people in England (many of whom are voters) have a great dislike to a bullying lawyer as such.

Therefore, though the carnal man's fingers may itch a little to put the improper recommendations of the *Dublin Evening Mail* in practice, and introduce Mr. Harrington to congenial mud in a horsepond, we do not think that this would be the wisest course to pursue. Nor are we even sure that the hint of disbarment which has been urged in another quarter is worth attention. Let, on the contrary, Mr. Harrington have rope—plenty of rope; and let his use of it be chronicled as widely as possible for the edification of that section of the British public which now sees in him and in his friends a combination of equal parts of the angel, the martyr, the statesman, and the prophet. Let them see how Mr. Parnell's intended Lord Chief Justice or Home Secretary, or whatever other dignity may be marked out for Mr. Harrington in the regenerated Castle, understands the language of a gentleman, the duties of an advocate, the respect due to courts of law, the principles of equity, and the methods of justice. Let them imagine the people of Ulster, the landlords, the Irish lodges, subjected, not merely to this language of a raving fish-fag, but to practical methods corresponding to the language. Let them have every chance of seeing in Mr. Harrington an example of the class of person to whom Mr. Gladstone proposes to hand Ireland over. More power, therefore, to Mr. Harrington's tongue, and let anybody who wishes Home Rule to be saved be left to pray, if he likes, for its salvation from Mr. Harrington.

#### FARFA.

ALMOST at the foot of the Sabine Mountains, about six miles from Orte and twenty miles from Rome, stands the church of the monastery of Farfa. It is beautifully situated; but there is little in the building to interest the traveller or remind him of the ancient splendour of the house. The atrium was built by a cardinal who held the abbey in commendam at the end of the fifteenth century, and the graceful campanile is of a somewhat earlier date. The convent has, of course, shared the fate of its fellows; and the conventual buildings are rented, we were told, by some Englishmen who are engaged in farming. Yet, in spite of its present low estate, the abbey of Farfa was one

of the wealthiest and most famous of the ancient monasteries of Italy. Its records have lately received special attention from two able and industrious students of the early history of their country, Signor Ignazio Giorgi, the sub-librarian of the Biblioteca Nazionale at Rome, and Count Ugo Balzani, the author of a charming little book on the Italian Chroniclers, reviewed in these columns August 4, 1883. These scholars are now jointly editing the Register of Farfa for the Società Romana di Storia Patria, a splendid work, of which we shall speak later; and a few years ago Signor Giorgi published an exhaustive treatise on the Register and on the other works of its author, Gregory of Catino. Each period in the early history of the abbey has its own literature, and the records of the house throw considerable light on the affairs of Central Italy from the beginning of the eighth on to the twelfth century. Farfa was partly founded by Faroald II., Duke of Spoleto, and was protected and enriched by the Lombard rulers of Italy; its first abbot and co-founder was a Frank, as indeed most of his successors were for a century and a half; and, accordingly, the monastery was likewise favoured by Frankish Kings and Emperors. Nor did its relations with the Empire cease with the extinction of the Carolingian dynasty; it was in immediate dependence on the Emperor, formed part of the Imperial possessions, and was exempt from Papal interference. The monks prided themselves on the independence they thus enjoyed; they believed that the prosperity of their house was increased or diminished in exact proportion to their fidelity to the Emperor, and boldly upheld the Imperial cause against the Papacy. The first Farfa book, the *Constructio Farfensis*, was the work of a monk of the ninth century. The late Dr. L. Bethmann, who claimed to have discovered it, for it seems to have been lost by the middle of the seventeenth century, gave its name to a short account of the early history of the abbey, which he edited in the *Monumenta Germanica (Scriptores)* T. XI. Signor Giorgi, however, contends, with some reason, that the manuscript Bethmann printed is not the original work, but a lectionary compiled for the use of the monks, and he further points out that the larger part of it was printed long before it appeared in the *Monumenta* in the two famous collections of Mabillon and the Bollandists. At the same time there can, we think, be little doubt that it fairly represents the *Constructio*, and it is all that remains to us of it. The anonymous writer relates at some length the circumstances of the foundation of the abbey at the end of the seventh century by a Frankish pilgrim, Thomas of Maurienne, and Faroald, Duke of Spoleto. As the legend of an earlier foundation in the reign of the Emperor Julian, and of a destruction by the Lombards, or, according to one account, by the Vandals, holds a place in the story of the work of Thomas, it should not be wholly rejected. A church or oratory, no doubt, stood on the spot before his days. The version that we have of the *Constructio* introduces into the story of Thomas an episode in the lives of Paldo, Taso, and Tato, the joint founders of the Monastery of St. Vincent on the Volturno, and gives brief notices of the early abbots of Farfa down to 857, the date at which the author of the original book probably ended his work. It was a time of great prosperity, broken only by one short period of trouble, which was caused by the irregular appointment of an Englishman named Wigbert to the office of abbot. He behaved scandalously, and after eleven months Desiderius, the Lombard King, ordered the gastald of Rieti to turn him out. By the end of the ninth century no abbey in Italy was so splendid as Farfa; none save Nonantola was worthy to be compared with it. A wonderful account is given of its vast possessions, its six churches, its gorgeous vestments, and its many books, and, if we may judge by what we have of the *Constructio*, it is evident that a higher literary standard was maintained there than in other Italian monasteries at this period. The decay of all this magnificence is described in the *Destructio*, written by Abbot Hugo early in the eleventh century. After a defence of six years the abbey was abandoned to the Saracens and was accidentally burnt; the congregation was divided, many were slain, and when the survivors returned and rebuilt their house all monastic life was abandoned; the abbots lived like secular princes, the brethren married and made homes in the neighbouring villages. Three claimants for the abbotship, two of whom had joined in murdering their predecessor, held different parts of the vast monastic estates, and the two murderers carried on war with each other. Among the many interesting matters recorded in the *Destructio* is the attempt of Alberic, Prince of the Romans, to introduce the Clunian reform into the monasteries of Central Italy. He was unsuccessful at Farfa, and the abbey was finally saved from further decay by the interposition of the Saxon emperor, who asserted their special rights over it. Although Abbot Hugo obtained his office by simony, he repented of his sin, and, after his confirmation by Otto III., reformed his house after the model of Cluny, and restored it to its old greatness. Besides his *Destructio*, a book of great historical value, he has left us some interesting notices of his own life and work.

Under Hugo the abbey entered on a new period of prosperity, and its restoration to literary activity is illustrated by the writings of its greatest chronicler, Gregory of Catino, who was born in 1062, and carried on his labours until he was seventy. His largest work, which he called the *Liber Gemmiographus sive Cleronomialis Ecclesie Farfensis*, the *Regesto di Farfa*, has itself had a curious history; for, among other vicissitudes, it was at one time used as a footstool by a French *Préfet*. It is now in the Vatican Library, and Signor Giorgi and Count Balzani are now for the first



time giving its treasures to the world. The Register of Farfa contains a series of over twelve hundred documents, reaching from 705 to the copyist's own time. The editors have already produced the second and third volumes of their work, which contain all the documents down to 1024; their first volume will be devoted to indexes, to a collection of Canons inserted in the Register, and to a preface which will treat both of the Register itself and of the whole history of the abbey. The work is beautifully got up; for the Municipality of Rome has, with enlightened liberality, contributed to the cost of production. It would be difficult to overrate the importance of this Register, for it throws a flood of light on some of the most obscure periods of Italian history. Besides the diplomas of emperors, kings, and dukes, it presents us with a perfect and lively picture of the system of legal administration under the Lombards and Franks, and contains numberless notices of the agriculture and the social condition and usages of the Italian people. We find, for example, transfers of "coloni" sometimes by name with their wives and families, of slaves, and of the dwellings of each class; and among these there is a curious deed of Lewis the Pious, granting the abbey a fisherman of Rieti named Aunefrid, with his wife, his sons, his house, and his fishery. Again, the right of sons to a fixed portion of the paternal estate, the father having power of alienation only as regards a certain portion, is illustrated by two or three documents; while one of 754 is a remarkable deed of family partnership for purposes of cultivation, executed with the consent of the lords of the lands to which it refers. The most noteworthy portions of the Register, however, are the reports of trials in which the abbey was concerned. Some of these are lively reading. The report of a case tried in the year 998 is of peculiar importance; for it shows that even at the close of the tenth century men occasionally claimed the Lombard law, and that the right to do so was highly valued. The priests of St. Eustathius disputed with Abbot Hugo the possession of two churches in the ninth regio of Rome "in thermis alexandrinis." They appealed to Otto III., and the case was heard before an Imperial judge, "domnus leo archidiaconus," and certain judges appointed by the Pope. The Abbot having demanded a postponement on the ground that he was not provided with an advocate, the Imperial judge, who was evidently the president of the Court, objected—

Et contra ille: "Nequaquam, sed dabo tibi advocatum qui pro te respondeat." Et abbas: "Volo scire si dederis michi advocatum romanum aut langobardum." Et ille: "Romanum dabo tibi." Et abbas: "Noluit deus ut res nostri monasterii aliquando sub lege romana vixisset, sed sub lege langobarda, propterea nolo romanum advocatum." Et ille: "Velis, nolis, legem romanam habes facere." At contradicebat abbas nullatenus se facturum, nisi ex ore domini imperatoris audisset. In tali autem altercatione, predictus domnus leo manibus suis cum comprehendit per cucullum, et iuxta se sedere fecit. Cui et dixit: "Hodie non exies de isto placito, nisi legem feceris." Et iterum abbas: "Ego non contradico legem, sed si permissis quadimionum tibi dabo iuxta meam legem, donec vadam ad meum monasterium et revertar cum advocato simul et iudicibus."—III. 138.

The Abbot obtained his demand. When the case was resumed, it was found necessary to make the Abbot's advocate a "judex" to pronounce on points touching his own law, and the Imperial judge swore him on the Gospels that he would do justly:—

Ad hoc abbas contristatus aiebat: "Domne, quare hoc fecisti? tulisti advocatum meum, modo pro me quis respondet?" Et ille: "Ego dabo tibi alium advocatum pro eo." Tunc precepit petro filio rainerii de comitatu reatino, qui ex parte ipsius monasterii erat, ut ipse advocatus fieret. Ad hoc abbas: "Domne, iste advocatus nescit respondere pro me." Et domnus leo: "Ego do licentiam priori advocato tuo, ut eum instruat qualiter respondeat."—P. 139.

So the "judex" taught the Abbot's new advocate what he was to say. A forty years' possession by the Abbot was established. On this the priests pleaded that a quit-rent (*pensio*) had been paid by the abbey for the churches. This the Lombard "judex" declared was of no consequence according to his law; but offered, if it would satisfy the Court and the Roman "judices," that the Abbot should call witnesses to deny the payment, and that then the conflict of evidence should be decided in Lombard fashion by combat. The priests' witnesses, however, broke down in cross-examination, the Abbot gained his case, and the priests were ordered by the Court to deliver him the churches then and there:—

Et apprehenderunt baculum simul et cartam per quam litigabant, et refutaverunt atque dederunt in manus hugonis abbatis et huberti advocati sui.—P. 140.

Even if these volumes contained little else of interest besides this report, we should have welcomed them; as it is, it is impossible to turn over many pages without lighting on something we are glad to have. We have left ourselves little space to speak of Gregory's other works, nor need we say much about them, for Count Balzani has described them in his "Italian Chroniclers." His *Liber Largitorius*, or collection of leases, and his *Floriger*, or index to the charters of the abbey, are still unprinted; the *Floriger* is of small importance, but the *Largitorius* is full of information respecting the system of holding and cultivating land that prevailed in Italy during the middle ages. His *Chronicon Farfense*, a rather vexatious compromise between a chronicle, a chartulary, and a terrier, has been printed by Muratori in his *Scriptores*, T. II. p. ii. A fifth work, attributed to Gregory, the *Orthodoxa Defensio Imperialis*, has been printed for the first time by Signor Giorgi in his *Il Regesto di Farfa e le altre Opere di Gregorio de Catino* (Roma, 1879). The authorship of the *Defensio* is uncertain, and we think that too much stress has been laid on the

resemblance between it and the known works of Gregory in point of style; in matter and in manner of treatment it is wholly unlike anything else he wrote. It contains a remarkable defence of the position of the Imperial party and of the right of the Emperor to grant investiture by the gift of the ring and staff; it was certainly written by a monk of Farfa, and is put forth on behalf of the convent. Signor Giorgi has done excellent service in printing it, and in calling attention to the error made by Wattenbach and Gregorovius in assigning it to the reign of Henry IV.; it belongs, as he points out from internal evidence, to the reign of Henry V., and was written before his Imperial coronation on April 22, 1111, and probably before the violent scene that took place in the Vatican on February 12 of the same year. Farfa had upheld the anti-Pope Clement, and Gregory VII. had threatened its abbot, Berald I., with excommunication at the Council of 1078. Four years later Berald received Henry IV. with great magnificence when he retired from the second siege of Rome. The *Defensio* sets forth the grounds on which the convent opposed the papal pretensions. The abbey remained faithful to the Imperial cause in after times until it lost its independent position. It became subject to the popes, its glory decayed under their dominion, and in 1400 Boniface IX. granted it *in commendam* to one of his nephews.

#### THE STOCK MARKETS.

BROKERS and jobbers are unanimous in the complaint that the present year has been one of the most disappointing and unprosperous on the Stock Exchange that they remember for a long time past. It has been all the more disappointing because it began with high hopes. At the close of last autumn there was a universal conviction that trade was rapidly improving throughout Europe. It had improved in a very marked manner in the United States, and the influence of the United States, it was argued, must tell so strongly upon Europe that there would be a considerable revival here also; all industrial enterprises, and more particularly railroads, would in consequence benefit; the prospect of better dividends would encourage the general public to buy; and, with the hope everywhere of rising prices, there would be an active and lucrative business transacted throughout this year. As a matter of fact, prices generally have fallen, and the year has been the reverse of profitable. It will be in the recollection of our readers that Prince Bismarck's famous speech in January last led to a panic upon nearly every Bourse and Stock Exchange in Europe. The greatest sufferer was the Paris Bourse, in which the outside or unofficial market was almost entirely ruined, and since then speculation there has been nearly paralyzed. The other Continental Bourses suffered very severely also, and the London Stock Exchange shared in the general losses, though it was much better able to bear the shock than the Continental Bourses. War, nevertheless, was avoided; but all through the spring and summer there has been a constant fear that it might break out. The Schnebele incident, the warnings of the German press respecting Russian finance, the insurrection in Afghanistan, the change of Ministry in Serbia, and the state of Bulgaria have kept the public in a state of unrest and anxiety. Consequently there has been no revival of business upon the Continental Bourses. The prices of foreign Government bonds, it is true, have recovered to a large extent from the fall of January and February; but new business has almost disappeared. And in the United States matters have been scarcely more satisfactory. American capitalists and speculators were obliged to buy the vast masses of bonds and shares which were sold by Europeans during the scare at the beginning of the year; and, as European investors and speculators have not bought back what they then sold, the Americans have been obliged to hold what they bought only in the hope of selling again at a considerable profit when confidence revived. The war scare was quickly followed, too, by the scare caused by the passing of the Interstate Commerce Act through Congress. The Act has proved rather beneficial than the reverse; but at the time the worst effects were predicted from it, and investors and speculators were completely alarmed by the predictions. Strikes, the breakdown of "corners" in coffee and wheat, some bank failures in the West, the difficulties of the Cincinnati, Hamilton, and Dayton, and of the Baltimore and Ohio Railroad Companies, and, lastly, the dearth and scarcity of money, have all combined to disturb and disarrange the New York Stock Exchange. And the difficulties of that Stock Exchange have been reflected in Europe, and have stopped business here. Thus fear of war and fear of difficulties in the American money market have checked enterprise in the stock markets of Europe and America, have caused prices to tend downwards, and, in consequence, have rendered business both dull and unprofitable. Is there any prospect of a change for the better in the remaining months of the year?

The political situation is apparently unchanged. The danger of war seems as great now as it was last January, and, therefore, there is no good reason why those who were then scared should take courage now to engage in new ventures. But the summer has passed away without bringing on war, and we have reached a time of year when it is not likely that military operations on a great scale will be begun. Therefore, people may reasonably look forward to some months of peace. The Stock Exchange public soon leaves out of account dangers which are not seen to be

imminent; and it is quite possible, therefore, that, in spite of the state of the Continent, there may be a very considerable revival of speculation. It is not probable, indeed, that the revival will begin upon the Continent. The Paris Bourse has not recovered from the effects of the panic at the end of last January, and the German Bourses have quite as much as they can do to maintain prices at their present level. Here in London a speculation in foreign Government bonds is even less likely. For some years past the British public have not been investing in foreign Government bonds, except perhaps in the bonds of the South American States. The speculation began in Berlin, and has been continued chiefly on the German, Austrian, and Italian Bourses. English investors have sold at the higher prices which have ruled, and English speculators have not participated largely in the movement originated in Berlin. A speculation, therefore, in foreign Government bonds is probable only if there is an outbreak of speculative activity in some other classes of securities, and thus a general speculative feeling is generated all over the world. And a considerable rise of prices in home railway stocks is hardly more probable. Trade is improving, but the improvement is exceedingly slow, and the prospect of any marked increase in railway dividends is not good. Profits, besides, for some years past have not been large, and, therefore, there is not a very large sum waiting for investment. Add to all this that the prices of home railway stocks have continued high all through the years of depression. There is only one department in which a very great speculative movement is at all probable, and that is the department for American railroad securities. If business becomes active there, prices, in consequence, rise considerably, and a speculative feeling is thus generated; it may extend to other departments and bring about a general upward movement. But, apparently, it is only in the market for American railroad securities that an upward movement can originate. Here in London, however, there is not much likelihood of a marked revival of speculation just at present; for one reason, because the future course of the money market is very obscure. The Directors of the Bank of England have allowed the stock of gold they hold to fall dangerously low. Their reserve, therefore, is hardly adequate to the circumstances of the time, and if a drain of gold for New York should set in money might become exceedingly dear and scarce. With this prospect before them, prudent men are hardly likely to engage in new risks of any magnitude. But if there should be a marked rise in the prices of American railroad securities in New York, speculators here in London would begin to buy, a speculative feeling would arise amongst the public, and the London Stock Exchange as usual would follow the lead of the New York Stock Exchange. The course of the stock markets within the next few months, therefore, depends mainly on the course of the New York Stock Exchange, and in its turn that depends mainly upon the New York money market. If money continues very scarce, so that speculators fear that they may not be able to meet their engagements, speculation cannot become active. If, on the other hand, money becomes more abundant, and there is a reasonable prospect that all the money necessary to carry out arrangements can be obtained on terms not too exorbitant, then it is extremely probable that an outburst of speculative activity is near at hand. The state of the money market in New York results mainly from the fact that the revenue of the United States Government greatly exceeds its expenditure, and that in consequence there is a very large surplus which the Government so far has not succeeded in getting out of the Treasury into the hands of the public. The United States Treasury does not employ a bank, like our own Chancellor of the Exchequer, and the Secretary of the Treasury is not permitted directly to lend the money paid into the Treasury. His means, therefore, of giving relief to the market are limited, but, so far as those means allow, he has been acting with great judgment hitherto. Until, however, Congress interferes with effect, it is impossible for the Executive Government to give full relief; and the course of the market, therefore, will depend to some extent, at all events, upon the opinion formed of the policy that Congress will adopt. It has now been brought home in the most telling way to the business men of the United States that the existing system of taxation with the existing system of expenditure inflicts great injury upon the trade of the whole country. Merchants and manufacturers have been paying for some time past from seven to ten per cent. for the means of carrying on their legitimate business. No more decisive evidence could be afforded of the injury that is being done to the prosperity of the country, and a practical people like the American, we may reasonably assume, will not allow a system to go on which is thus proved to be injurious.

If once the general public comes to this conclusion, and in consequence if public opinion decides either that the tariff must be reduced or that the expenditure must be increased, then we may reasonably expect very considerable ease in the New York money market. Next month, it is to be recollected, money tends to flow back from the agricultural districts to the reserve cities. In all former years this has been found to be the case, and doubtless it will happen this year also. The new reserve cities, it is true, may retain much of the money which has been withdrawn from New York, and the reflux to New York may, therefore, be much less than in past years; but there will be a return of money from the agricultural districts to the reserve cities. In the reserve cities money will thus tend to become more plentiful and cheaper, and, if the return flow to New York is less than to other places at first,

money will be ultimately attracted to New York also, because there it will command a higher price than elsewhere. Upon the whole, therefore, the probability is that the New York money market will be neither so disturbed nor so stringent next month as has been feared. Even during September, although the rates of interest and discount are extremely high, the actual scarcity of money is less than it has often been in the month of September before. But, if the prospect of the money market should become brighter, we may almost certainly count upon a considerable rise of prices in the Stock Exchange. Prices generally are lower now than they were last autumn, and yet the earnings of the railroads are very much larger than they were twelve months ago. Trade, too, has made considerable progress, and there is decided prosperity throughout the Union. Were it not, therefore, for the fears entertained of dear and scarce money, it is certain that prices would be much higher than they are; and, if the fears of dear money fall away, it is reasonable to assume that there will be a steady advance in prices from now till the end of the year. Furthermore, the Inter-State Commerce Act has made wars of rates much more difficult than formerly. One of the objects of the Act, indeed, was to prevent wars of rates in future. If it has not done that, it at least has imposed very serious difficulties in the way of wars of rates, and this is another decided advantage to railway investors generally. Lastly, it is to be recollected that the great syndicate of capitalists which ended the last war of rates, and since then has been extending its influence over all the railroads serving New York, has the greatest interest in advancing prices. Whether it will succeed, however, depends not so much upon railroad earnings or upon future hopes as upon the course of the money market. Unless speculators can count with reasonable certainty upon being able to borrow from bankers the amounts they require to fulfil their engagements there cannot be any speculative activity, and without speculative activity there cannot be a material rise in Stock Exchange prices.

#### GILBERT WHITE AS A NATURALIST.

DURING the first few bright days of spring, when the lilac buds are swelling, and perhaps a few small leaves have appeared on the elder, when the common garden weeds such as groundsel, chickweed, and dandelions blossom, and, from the absence of other flowers, receive attention and a tolerance which is refused them later on—when the thrush, and lark, and chaffinch begin to sing, and a stray orange-tipped butterfly appears, many good resolutions are formed by all sorts and conditions of men, women, and children to take the study of natural history seriously in hand. Experts in the 'ologies, whose technicalities are much less formidable in the prospective than the actual application, are consulted, and handbook, diaries, microscopes, and other apparatus are got together. But somehow the study does not prosper; the season comes on apace, and the student is bewildered and overwhelmed by the number and variety of phenomena presented to his notice, and he is compelled either to abandon or put off his study to a more convenient season. The natural historian—we mean the observer and recorder of natural phenomena, not the classifier and indexer of natural objects—will do well to prepare himself for this kind of study by becoming acquainted with the mode of life and methods of study of other natural historians, and especially of the prince of them—Gilbert White of Selborne.

It is often said that the naturalist, like the poet, is born, not made; but this is true only of the mental qualities of sympathy and reverence for nature and truthfulness in observing and recording phenomena which they possess in common. Suitable surroundings and the stimulus of kindred spirits are important agents in developing a taste for natural history. In his tenth letter to Pennant (the first relating to natural history, and probably the first written) Gilbert White remarks:—"It has been my misfortune never to have had any neighbours whose studies have led them towards the pursuit of natural knowledge; so that, for want of a companion to quicken my industry and sharpen my attention, I have made but slender progress in a kind of information to which I have been attached from my childhood." But, although this sentence was written about twenty years before the publication of *The Natural History and Antiquities of Selborne*, and during which time much of its material was collected under the stimulus of an active correspondence with Pennant, Barrington, and other naturalists, White seems to have underrated the influence and congenial tastes of several members of his own family and other friends of his boyhood, when the taste for natural history is chiefly acquired, as is sufficiently demonstrated by the series of private letters published in 1877 by Professor Bell. Gilbert White had four brothers and a sister, who were interested, either directly or indirectly, in pursuits similar to his own, and who must have been his companions in boyhood. Benjamin White was a publisher of works on natural history in London, and it was doubtless through him that Gilbert became acquainted with Pennant and Barrington, and from whom he received books and information on the current literature of his favourite subject of study. In the letters to Pennant and Barrington there are frequent references to observations made at Gibraltar by another brother, the Rev. John White; and we gather from the private correspondence that Gilbert took a very lively interest in a work on the natural history of Gibraltar which his brother was



preparing for publication, but which unfortunately never saw the light. It was also this brother who carried on a correspondence with Linnaeus, which was prompted by Gilbert. A third brother, Thomas White, was a Fellow of the Royal Society, and had kindred tastes with Gilbert; for, on his retirement from business as a City merchant, he proceeded to collect materials for a history of the county of Hampshire, part of which Gilbert was himself writing. White's sister was married to a Mr. Thomas Barker, who was also a Fellow of the Royal Society and a country gentleman possessed of much natural knowledge, relative to which he was in frequent correspondence with Gilbert White. Later, White had two nephews, to whom he was much attached, and whom he inspired with an enthusiastic love of his favourite pursuits. His nephew John lived with him for several years; and, from his inquisitive disposition, he must have proved an active stimulus and help to his uncle; while the correspondence with his nephew Samuel Barker shows that his general reading, as well as his knowledge of nature, was severely tested by the questionings of that ingenious young man.

Unfortunately, we have no records of Gilbert White's boyhood. His grandfather was vicar of Selborne, and his father was a barrister. Gilbert was born at Selborne on July 18th, 1720, but seems to have spent the first thirteen years of his life at Compton, near Guildford, and at Harting, in Sussex; but all his subsequent life, except when at school at Basingstoke and at college at Oxford, was spent in or near his native village of Selborne, which, from the great variety of country downs, forest, hills, dales, sunken lanes, and commons, was exceedingly favourable for the study of natural history. It is very probable, however, that Gilbert White received the earliest and strongest impetus to study natural phenomena from his contact in his boyhood with the celebrated Dr. Stephen Hales, the ingenious author of *Vegetable Statics*, a circumstance which has escaped the notice of White's biographers and commentators. In Mr. Marsham's first letter to Gilbert White, after complimenting him on the publication of his *Natural History of Selborne*, he goes on to say, "I have kept a poor imperfect journal about fifty years, but it has been chiefly confined to the leading and growth of trees; and was undertaken by the advice of my most estimable friend the late Dr. Stephen Hales," to which White replied, "I am glad you happened to mention your most estimable friend the late Dr. Stephen Hales, because he was also my most valued friend, and in former days near neighbour during the summer months. For though his usual abode was at Teddington, yet did he for many years reside for about two months at his rectory at Faringdon" (where, by the way, White was afterwards curate for many years), "which is only two miles from hence, and was well known to my grandfather and father, as well as to myself." Another letter of White's to Marsham is devoted to an account of some of Hales's scientific inquiries and their practical application to sanitary purposes, and he observes, "It was elegantly remarked on our common friend Dr. Stephen Hales, by one who has written his character in Latin, that 'scientiam philosophicam usibus humanis famulari jussit.' . . . His whole mind seemed replete with experiment, which of course gave a tincture and turn to his conversation, often somewhat peculiar, but always interesting." Hales died at the age of eighty-four in 1761, when White was only forty-one years of age, so that it must have been in his young and most impressionable days that he came under the influence of this practical philosopher and naturalist; and it was doubtless from him that White as well as Marsham acquired the taste for observing and recording periodic natural phenomena—the aspect of nature to which he devoted most attention.

Gilbert White is an example of the evolution of the naturalist out of the sportsman. Notwithstanding he was being educated for the Church, he was a keen sportsman as a young man, his favourite pursuit being shooting. His carefully kept college accounts show that he spent a good deal of money on powder and shot, and we know that he kept dogs both at home and at college. In his letter on gossamers he says:—"On September 21, 1741" (when he was in his 21st year), "being then on a visit and intent on field diversions, I rose before daybreak; when I came into the enclosures I found the stubble and clover-grounds matted all over with a thick coat of cobwebs. . . . When the dogs attempted to hunt their eyes were so blinded and hoodwinked that they could not proceed, so that, finding my sport interrupted, I returned home musing in my mind on the oddness of the occurrence." Many years later (1780) he showed the survival of his sporting instincts by referring in the following jocular manner to the achievements of one of his nephews:—"My nephew Richard has been here; he was quite transported beyond himself with the pleasure of shooting, and, after walking more than a hundred miles, killed one woodcock, which ill-fated bird took the pains to migrate from Scandinavia to be shot by a cockney who never shot a bird before!" White always looked with leniency and with a certain amount of sympathy on the sporting instincts of mankind. "Considering the strong propensity in human natures towards the pleasures of the chase, it is not wonderful," he remarks in his *Antiquities*, "that the canons of Selborne should languish after hunting, when, from their situation so near the precincts of Wolmer Forest, the King's hounds must have been often in hearing and sometimes in sight from their windows." In another place, remarking on the injurious effects of deer-stealing and poaching on the morals of the people, he says:—"The temptation is irresistible; for most men are sportsmen by constitution, and there is such an inherent spirit for hunting in human nature as scarce any inhibitions can restrain." Sir John Lubbock probably

had Gilbert White in his mind when he said on a recent occasion that the study of natural history seemed destined to replace the loss of what is *par excellence* termed "sport," engraven in us by the operation of thousands of years, during which man has lived chiefly by the produce of the chase. Game has become smaller, and the opportunities of pursuing it fewer, and "some of us even now—and more, no doubt, will hereafter—satisfy instincts essentially of the same origin by the study of birds, or insects, or even infusoria—of creatures which more than make up by their variety what they want in size."

Although a clergyman, and sometime curate of his own and the adjoining parish of Faringdon, Gilbert White was, to all intents and purposes, a country gentleman, and the "Squire" of Selborne, after the age of forty years, when he came into his ancestral property. He persistently refused several livings offered to him by the College of which he was a Fellow; and, from one of his letters to his brother John, also a clergyman, he says that he continues to hold his curacies in order to have some regular occupation to fall back upon. White was also a bachelor, which favoured his out-door pursuits, as it relieved him of many of the anxieties and responsibilities of family life, and left him free to devote his time and attention to his favourite occupations.

#### ADULTERATION.

FOR centuries past laws have from time to time been directed in England against adulteration. Until lately these laws, although professing to protect public health, were mainly intended to protect the Excise. But few articles were covered by them, and, even from the Excise point of view, they were of little efficacy. Now and then the public was startled from its lethargy for a short time, as, for example, by Accum's curious treatise, entitled *Death in the Pot*, but no general attention was aroused until 1850, when a specialist journal, the *Lancet*, began its celebrated researches. The wide prevalence of adulteration and the noxious character of much of it were brought out so distinctly by these investigations that Parliament took the matter up, and in 1860 the first general adulteration Act was passed. This Act was practically a dead letter from the first, chiefly because it left the initiative in prosecutions to private persons, who, it soon appeared, would rather be poisoned or cheated than take any trouble in the matter. This was followed in 1872 by a more stringent Act, which worked better; and this in turn by the "Sale of Food and Drugs Act, 1875," which, with some modifications introduced in 1879, is still in force, and has been productive of very great benefit to the community. It has led to the appointment of a considerable, though still a very insufficient, number of Public Analysts, who, on the whole, have done their work well. Some were, indeed, as ill-chosen and inefficient as they were underpaid; but many were sound chemists, who entered upon their duties with energy and rapidly improved and added to the methods of analysis, often very crude, that had hitherto been in use. The Public Analysts formed for themselves a Society which, although necessarily small, has done excellent work. Its Proceedings contain many original articles of great value—articles which are read and quoted in every civilized country—and by the collaboration of its members much useful work of co-ordination has been accomplished. The power of appeal to the chemists of the Excise laboratory at Somerset House, which the Act of 1875 conceded to the trading community, was at first and is still objected to by some Public Analysts; but experience has shown that it was wisely bestowed. Dr. Bell and his colleagues have not only shown analytical skill and aided materially in the discovery of accurate methods of analysis, but they have succeeded in the more difficult task of holding the balance impartially between the Public Analysts, who in their zeal were naturally anxious to obtain convictions, and the traders who, charged with commercial fraud, were equally anxious to defend themselves.

The existing Acts, then, have worked well on the whole, and have scotched, although they have not killed, the hydra of adulteration. Adulteration with poisonous materials has, according to the published returns, almost ceased, and that of itself is a very great gain. But for all that the experience of the last eight years has revealed many imperfections and ambiguities in the present law, and the time is now ripe for considering whether these cannot be rectified without inflicting injury upon any honest manufacturer or trader. Difficulties beset the inquiry on all sides, and if we offer suggestions we do so in no dogmatic spirit, but only in the hope that they may assist the more accurate thought that must precede future legislation. We shall probably be thought heterodox, or even reactionary in some respects, by many whose opinions are entitled to the most careful consideration.

The first defect in the present law is the gravest of all. It is one which will hardly be denied by any one. Too much option is allowed to local authorities. In many districts the authority has been intelligent, impartial, and active. A good analyst and good inspectors have been appointed, and they have been encouraged to do their work thoroughly, without fear or favour. In such districts adulteration has diminished greatly, both in character and kind. The fraudulent dealer has abandoned the use of poison, and if he still waters his milk he does so in fear and trembling, and commonly to a moderate extent only. But in too many other districts no analyst is appointed, or a cheap and

incompetent one, and even if a good man has been selected, no work, or very little, is provided for him. In such places a close examination would generally show that actual or probable adulterators held office on the Board. Such cases are obvious scandals, and the law provides no remedy. The Local Government Board may be perfectly aware that the spirit of the law is violated, but, although they can advise, lecture, and even threaten, they are very often powerless to coerce.

The next point we wish to raise relates to the distinction now recognized by law and universally admitted between noxious, or poisonous, and innocuous adulteration. The distinction is a most proper one, and will doubtless always be maintained, yet nevertheless several important questions occur in relation to it. The introduction of poison into food by gross carelessness is a misdemeanour, but its introduction deliberately for the purpose of gain should be a felony, and we think the law might safely be strengthened in this direction. Let the present penalties remain; but, if it were proved, for example, that any one had with sufficient knowledge, or after warning, used a poisonous compound in colouring sweetmeats, he should be indicted for felony. No fine or short term of imprisonment would suit his case. Then, again, the sale of articles of food in a condition likely to injure health is obviously a dangerous form of fraud. In some cases—as in the case of meat—it is prohibited by statutes which are rigorously enforced. But it would, we think, simplify matters if the prohibition were extended to all damaged food injurious to health, and were included in the next Food and Drugs Act. Let us take an illustration. Damaged flour is constantly sold. Its use in bread-making is disguised by the addition of alum. Now it is extremely doubtful, to say the least of it, whether a very small portion of alum in bread is injurious to health. It does not even remain as alum, but is rapidly converted into phosphate of alumina, a compound which is almost certainly innocuous. Hence we infer that it is the sale of damaged flour which should be prohibited, and not the use of small quantities of alum. If the sale of damaged flour is allowed it is much better that alum should be used also, because in this case it improves the bread. Indeed, a distinguished living chemist has gone so far as to assert that the use of alum in suitable cases is to be commended as rendering available for the food of man much flour which must otherwise be rejected.

Of a totally different kind is another objection which recent experience has rendered necessary in regard to the detection of poisons in articles of food. The Act, however modified, should only be an Act for the punishment of fraudulent adulteration, noxious or otherwise. It ought by no means to enforce upon the analyst the duty of detecting secret crime, or even accidental poisoning. If the public analyst were compelled to search for all known poisons in every article of food or drugs submitted to him the Act would become a dead letter at once, for no chemist of standing would undertake the task except for fees which would be prohibitory. So great is the number of samples which a public analyst has to test that a complete toxicological examination of every one would require a small army of assistants, would entail a very great expense, and, as far as the detection of adulteration goes, would do no practical good. We will again illustrate by an example. Some country wisacre, thinking to confound the public analyst (a distinguished chemist, as it happened), or to throw discredit on chemical analysis generally, put some poison in beer and sent it up for analysis. The poison was not one that would or could be used for ordinary adulteration, its addition could have yielded no profit to any tradesman, but could only have been intended for ordinary crime. Of course the analyst, whose duty it was to search for fraudulent admixture and not for secret murder, did not find the poison, and the person who had contrived what he thought a trap rejoiced accordingly.

We come now to the other case of fraudulent adulteration, that in which no noxious substance is used and the purchaser is merely cheated. This offence, as defined by law, is of two kinds—namely, first, the fraudulent additions of foreign matter, such as water to milk, or chicory to coffee; and secondly, the fraudulent removal of a valuable ingredient. In each case the sophistication must be fraudulent. The skimming of milk and the admixture of spent leaves with tea are of this kind, but the removal of superfluous fat from cocoa is not, because the cocoa is thereby improved as an article of food. All this is sensible enough, and it appears at first sight as though it would be easy to enforce such provisions. But, as a matter of fact, it is in some cases extremely difficult. Many unexpected and contradictory decisions have already perplexed the authorities, and others are certain to occur in future unless greater precision can be given to the law. It is necessary to understand the nature of the central difficulty before any attempt can be made to overcome it.

This central difficulty may be shortly stated to be the difficulty of definition. It was overlooked in the Act of 1875 and turned up shortly after its enactment. The watering of whisky, gin, and other spirits was clearly an offence under the Act, but who could say what the natural strength of the spirits was? Evidently they could not be pure alcohol. There was a deadlock for a time, until in 1879 a supplementary Act was passed defining the minimum strength of spirits of various kinds. That removed the difficulty at once. The distiller or publican may now water his spirits under the eyes of the inspector if he chooses, provided he does not go below the limit allowed by law. But with other articles of food or drugs exactly the same difficulty presents itself, and the law has as yet provided no remedy. The most important case by far is that of milk. The watering and

skimming of milk are the commonest and among the most objectionable forms of commercial immorality. But the law, perhaps wisely, compels the analyst to specify in his report the extent of the adulteration, whether of addition or removal. Hence he is face to face with the very difficulty from which in the case of spirits he has been relieved. He has to decide, first of all, what is milk? Now, milk varies extremely in composition. Ill-fed cows often yield very poor milk, and the sale of such milk is certainly not an offence under the Act. The analyst must therefore take as his standard the very poorest milk, and even then he cannot be certain that when he reports the presence of so much "added water" he is stating the literal truth. At present the standard, or more properly the limit of purity, is generally taken as eleven per cent. of solid matter—namely, two and a half of butter fat and eight and a half of solids not fat. Every milk vendor knows this, and knows that he can safely water or skim his milk down to this limit, and defy the public analyst. He can and does do exactly what the publican is permitted to do with his spirits; but, unlike the publican, he must do it in secret, for even the smallest addition of water to the richest milk is, under the terms of the Act, a fraudulent adulteration.

Considerably more difficult than the milk case is that of beer. If it is hard to define genuine milk, it is much harder to define beer; for, after all, milk is a natural while beer is an artificial product. Certainly the outside public believe generally that beer is a beverage made from malt, hops, yeast, and water only. There was, indeed, for some time on the statute-book an Act, passed in the reign of George III., prohibiting the use of any other materials; but it has long been rescinded, and it must be remembered that the use of hops is itself a modern innovation, and was at one time strongly denounced as an adulteration. The use of sugar has long been permitted, and there is no proof that it is detrimental to health. Other grains beside barley are often used. Barley-malt is apt to contain rather more nitrogen than is desirable, and gelatinized rice is often added to it with distinct advantage. Then, again, with regard to hops. The resin of the hop is a wholesome and agreeable bitter; but it is hard to say that no other vegetable bitter is wholesome. On the whole, it seems, to say the least, doubtful whether the use in brewing of harmless materials other than malt and hops can advantageously be prohibited. As to the revenue, the Excise officers may safely be trusted to look after that, and just now they are very energetic in securing the punishment of adulteration offences which affect the duty. Provided the beer be wholesome, its flavour must be left to the public taste. If the beer made from "chemicals" is nasty, the beer-drinkers will soon discover and reject it, and brewers who stick to the old methods will profit. The customer who wants malt and hops will ask for Guinness or Bass or some other well-known brand, and it will then be a fraud to supply him with any other.

The case of butter is totally different. The recent Margarine Act prohibits the sale of butter-substitutes without sufficient description, and compels the registration of all works in which such substitutes are made. This Act will be rigorously enforced, and we hear with satisfaction that it is accepted as just by the higher class of wholesale vendors. There can be no doubt that it will put a stop to a great deal of fraudulent trading. The word margarine is ill chosen, because it is already appropriated to a definite and well-known chemical compound which is not even one of the constituents of butter-substitutes. But the Act, on the whole, is a good one, and the only important objection which can be made to it is that it is too narrow. Butter is an important article of food, but it is not the only article in regard to which the public requires protection. Piecemeal legislation, though occasionally necessary, is never satisfactory, and it is to be hoped that the Margarine Act of 1887 will soon be merged in a wider measure.

Looking broadly at the present state of the law and the various difficulties in its operation which we have indicated, it seems plain that new legislation is necessary. Probably the present dilemma in regard to milk, beer, drugs, and other articles of variable composition could most easily be avoided by introducing definitions into a schedule in the Act. We have little doubt that, with regard to milk, this would be the best course. The limit then would be not that of the very poorest milk, but one which, while securing good milk to the public, could easily be attained by any respectable vendor.

#### RACING AT DONCASTER.

THERE were capital fields on the first day of the Doncaster Meeting, the largest being for the Welter Plate, for which twenty-one horses started. Mischief, Jezreel, and Grey Friars were separated by necks only, in the above order, and, judging from the weights they carried, it would appear that they must be pretty equal. Mr. Wardle's mare, Merry Duchess, stayed better than was expected over the mile and six furlongs for the Great Yorkshire Handicap, which she won by two lengths from Oliver Twist. Six of the seven starters for the Champagne Stakes had won races, and the other—Mr. D. Baird's Marmion, a colt by Galopin out of Bellicent that he had bought at the sale of Lord Rosebery's yearlings for 1,100 guineas—had never run before. Ayrshire was the first favourite and Crowberry the second favourite, while many backers had a strong fancy for Caerlaverock. The Duke of Portland's Ayrshire won easily by two lengths, and



Marmiton beat Lord Zetland's Caerlaverock by a head for second place, with Crowberry a dozen lengths in their rear. This was exceedingly inconsistent with the running of Crowberry and Caerlaverock at York, where the former, when receiving 3 lbs., beat the latter by half a length. The form shown by Marmiton was very good for a first performance, and at once placed him among the high-class two-year-olds. Ayrshire had now won nearly 7,000*l.* in stakes, and after the race only 5 to 2 were offered against himself and Friar's Balsam together for the Derby. The days seem early for such short odds on so distant a race. Bets against groups of horses for the Derby seem popular at present. A week ago, 2,000 to 500 was laid against Crowberry, Caerlaverock, Galore, and Ossory.

On the St. Leger day the average size of the fields was again good, but the racing, apart from the great event itself, was of only moderate interest. The valuable Tattersall Sale Stakes brought out a dozen two-year-olds. The best public performer of the party was Bartizan; but he was penalized, and could not win under his extra weight. Mr. R. Peck's Socrates, a chestnut colt by Xenophon that he had picked up for 250 guineas at the sale of Lord Wolverton's yearlings, won very easily by six lengths. This was a great improvement on his previous form, and, as will be seen presently, he ran well under a heavy weight on the following day. "Mr. Childwick's" Hugo, who beat Réve d'Or for the Prendergast Stakes last autumn, won his first race of this season, at the eighth attempt, in the Rufford Abbey Stakes. In laying 11 to 10 on the Duke of Hamilton's filly, Disappointment, against the Duke of Westminster's filly, Mara, for the Municipal Stakes, betting-men foretold the result with great accuracy, as she won by a neck after a very fine race.

Some yearlings fetched high prices on the Thursday. Sir Tatton Sykes had a capital sale, his five yearlings averaging over 1,000 guineas apiece, while one, a colt by Hermit out of Ma Belle, was sold to Mr. Hamar Bass for 2,100 guineas. Mr. Simons Harrison did better still, for his four averaged 1,640 guineas each, the colt by Galopin out of Crucible making 2,400 guineas, and the colt by Hampton out of Rosy Morn 3,000. Lord Zetland's Scottish King, who had started at only 6 to 1 for the St. Leger on the previous day, had to be hard driven to beat Flower Girl, a filly that had run no less than nine times without ever winning a race, for the Scarborough Stakes, and he is evidently a lazy horse. A field of nineteen ran for the Portland Plate, and General Owen Williams's lightly weighted four-year-old, Lisbon, who started at 12 to 1, jumped away with the lead, made all the running, and won by half a dozen lengths. He had been unplaced four times this year, so he got into this handicap at the advantageous weight of 6 st. 7 lbs., receiving more than 2 st. from several of his opponents. For the Rous Plate, St. Symphorien was made the favourite on the strength of his having run second to Galore at Sandown a few days earlier; but he now only ran fourth, the race being won by Hayhoe's Tondina, against whom 20 to 1 had been offered in vain at the start. Socrates, who was giving her 15 lbs., ran her to half a length.

On the Friday Mr. Vyner's Gloriation won the Doncaster Stakes. If not quite first class, he is a very useful sort of colt. Sir Tatton Sykes's Cardinal Mai beat fourteen two-year-olds for the Prince of Wales's Nursery Plate. Although not generally admired, this colt has won both the races for which he has run. Lord Bradford's Martinet won his third race of the season in the Westmorland Stakes, giving no less than 2 st. 9 lbs. to Brayley, who had won races this year. The race for the Doncaster Cup was a sort of trial between English and Continental form, as Count C. Canevaro's Pythagoras, a chestnut colt by Kingcraft that had been very successful abroad, was pitted against Lord E. Somerset's Carlton. The foreigner (who, by the way, is in reality an English-bred colt) made the running over the greater part of the long two miles and five furlongs; but he was fairly pumped out when Carlton challenged him at the bend, and his jockey was pulling him up as Carlton passed the winning-post a dozen lengths in front of him. Carlton has had a great year, and all his races have been won over long distances. The meeting wound up with the Park Hill Stakes, which proved an interesting race, as the winner of the Oaks was opposed by Porcelain, who had run her to half a length for the One Thousand. As Réve d'Or was now to give Porcelain 11 lbs., it looked a fine thing between the pair; but 2 to 1 was laid upon Réve d'Or. Maize, who was meeting Réve d'Or for the fourth time this season—she beat her at Goodwood when receiving 12 lbs.; but she was only receiving 4 lbs. now—made the running to the half-mile post, where the two favourites came up. Porcelain then took the lead; but Réve d'Or gradually gained upon her until she had reached her head. More than that, however, the winner of the Oaks could not do, and Porcelain won an exceedingly fine race.

With a remarkable St. Leger, large fields for most of the races, and some interesting contests, the late Doncaster Meeting was unquestionably a success, in spite of all that has been said about modern meetings, with their enormous stakes, supplanting the older ones; but there was a great deal of rain during the week, and the terrible railway accident that took place on the last day of the meeting made a sad ending to it.

#### POPES AND KINGS.

ON Tuesday last the seventeenth anniversary of the entry of the Italian troops into Rome was observed with exceptional demonstrations of public enthusiasm and rejoicing. Some fifty Co-operative Societies headed by the Municipal Guard marched in solemn procession to place wreaths on the monument of "the patriots who fell in 1870" at the Porta Pia, where Menotti Garibaldi addressed them, and proceeded afterwards to visit the tomb of Victor Emmanuel at the Pantheon. The new bronze statue of Rienzi, "the last tribune of Rome," was unveiled in the Campidoglio, and in the evening a banquet was given to "the veterans of 1848-49" and the city was illuminated. The King, who was absent from Rome, telegraphed his thanks and congratulations to the Syndic, and took occasion in doing so to refer to the approaching sacerdotal Jubilee of Leo XIII. He regarded this celebration of September 20 as a fresh proof that "Rome, while maintaining her character as the capital of a free and strong nation, will know how to offer safe and honourable hospitality to those who come to render homage to the Holy Father" on his Jubilee in December next. Meanwhile we hear from the papal organs that elaborate silver medals of two sizes are being struck for the occasion, under the supervision of the Roman Society for the encouragement of art, from a design of the Chevalier Bianchi. These medals, after being blessed by the Pope, are to be worn by the pilgrims, suspended by a blue silk ribbon edged with white, at the pontifical audiences. At the same time the Roman Jubilee Committee has issued an appeal to the Catholics of Rome to join in the rejoicings, and exhorts them by their prayers "to prepare a gift which above all would please the Holy Father, the cessation of the fatal conflict between Church and State." The manifesto goes on, in language which, if somewhat ambiguous, is not bellicose or bitter in its tone, to pray that "those who direct public affairs in Italy may listen to the wise counsels of the Sovereign Pontiff, and strive under the guidance of so enlightened a head to prepare a glorious future for our peninsula." It then begs "our adversaries to remember that we too love our country, and desire to see it strong and prosperous," but since it cannot be great and glorious without the Divine blessing, "we wish to see this classic land protected by the faith and the Vicar of Christ in the condition which he claims as necessary for the due exercise of his ministry." This language, as we said before, is ambiguous, but it is not conceived in the *non possumus* vein, which its authors must have known would be unacceptable to the Pontiff. The "condition" which his Holiness "claims as necessary for the proper exercise of his ministry" has never been very accurately defined, but it certainly does not mean a restoration of the Temporal Power to its condition before 1870, or even of the sovereignty over Rome. That claim has been, virtually, if not formally, abandoned. The utmost which Leo XIII. can expect, probably all that he really desires, to reclaim, is an acknowledged sovereignty over the Vatican and its immediate environs. And within the Vatican he holds at present the *status* of a Sovereign, not a subject, according to the law of Guarantees. It would be well no doubt both for Italy and the Church if the approaching festal season could be made the occasion of accommodating this to external observers not very serious difference.

It is true of course that there is a party, as well among the Cardinals as among the *papalini*, who would by no means be satisfied with any such compromise, and who still hope against hope, or certainly against reason, for a partial if not complete restoration of the *status quo*. It has been observed that the recent manifesto of the Count of Paris should convey a warning to them that they have nothing to look for from a restored French monarchy. The manifesto does not indeed enter directly on the subject, but the very omission is significant, and may be one reason for the contemptuous hostility of the *Univers*. It may pretty safely be inferred from its general drift that the Orleans claimant would not, if he gained his throne, act in the spirit of M. Thiers's famous epigram, "*je ne suis pas Chrétien, mais je suis papiste*." The time is past when either a French monarchy or Republic would find its interest in opposing Italian unity. But it is perhaps somewhat premature yet to discuss the probable policy of an Orleans monarchy in Italian affairs, and as Leo XIII. has expressly declared that he would under no circumstances accept foreign armed intervention to restore him to his throne, the discussion is not a very pertinent one. It is more to the purpose to bear in mind, what the Cardinals at least can hardly be ignorant of, that there is absolutely no party in Rome, apart from the little clique of *papalini* whose political influence does not count, who would favour or indeed be disposed to tolerate a restoration of the old papal sovereignty. The more patriotic feel that it would be incompatible with the unity and greatness of their country. And even the noble and princely families, who at first were thought not to care much about Italian unity and to be attached to the papal government, have good grounds of their own now, of a material and financial nature, for not desiring a return of the former state of things. But what must come home, if not to the reactionary section of the Cardinals, to the Pope himself more strongly than the external difficulties in the way of such a consummation, are the religious and spiritual consequences of prolonging a contest which sooner or later can have but one ending. The candidates for ordination in the various Italian seminaries are said to have fallen off by two-thirds from what used to be the normal complement. This may not perhaps be an unmixed evil, for there were always formerly a large number of idle priests

in Italy, living or starving on the fees paid for masses, who were of small benefit and less credit to the Church. But if it be true, as is reported, that a great many country parishes, and in some parts whole communes, are now left without any pastoral care, the defalcation must have become a grave practical hindrance to the work of the Church. And the further allegation that an immense majority of the boys sent to the seminaries are taken from the lower agricultural class points to a prevalent feeling of hostility or distrust among the educated classes, which constitutes in itself a serious danger for the Church in more ways than one. We know something by experience of the working of a peasant priesthood in Ireland. And these are not days when those who have at heart the interests of revealed religion can desire to see the clerical profession divorced from the thought and intelligence of the nation. That has been, in spite of much unimpeachable earnestness and zeal, the great weakness of the modern French Church. Leo XIII., who has dwelt so strongly on the importance of education, and has made it his special aim to raise the standard of ecclesiastical studies, would be the last man to view with indifference the reproduction of a similar state of things in Italy. And he must know it to be the almost inevitable result of a standing disunion of sentiment and thought between the nation and the national Church.

But moreover the very juxtaposition of the anniversary of September 20 and the approaching Papal Jubilee is in itself suggestive, as the royal telegram implies. It seems to indicate, in some sense to prove, how little real or necessary connexion there is between the temporal and spiritual claims of the Papacy, how little the spiritual office depends for its due exercise on the possession of secular sovereignty. Seventeen years ago the Italian troops entered Rome just two months after the disastrous close of the Vatican Council; we say disastrous because so far as can be judged—and the present Pope would probably not care to dispute the fact—it has prejudiced rather than promoted the best interests of the Church of Rome. The Council indeed might equally have been held—though it probably would not have been held—if the Italians had occupied Rome the year before. It was perfectly understood at the time that, if Pius IX. wished to reassemble the Fathers, as might have been expected—for the Council was not dissolved but prorogued only—no difficulties whatever would be placed in his way by the Government. What would not have been possible had it been held after the fall of the Temporal Power was the employment of the curious and not very canonical methods for overawing troublesome or recalcitrant prelates which readers of the *Letters of Quirinus* will be familiar with. That is to say, the spirituality would have been left to itself without being able to invoke the aid or being liable to the pressure of the secular arm. And that surely would have been no disadvantage. On the other hand, the Italian occupation of Rome will not, as we have seen, in any way interfere with the celebration of the Papal Jubilee, which is a purely religious observance, for it commemorates the ordination of Leo XIII. to the priesthood, not his accession to the Papacy, still less to the sovereignty of the Roman States. Several Popes, including some of the least respectable of the series, must have survived the jubilee of their priesthood, though none before Pius IX. attained to the *annus Petri*, the silver jubilee of their pontificate. But we are not aware of its being solemnly observed by any pontiff before Pius IX., who also kept it after he lost his civil crown. That seems to show, what in itself is only natural, that the spiritual as distinct from the secular aspect of the Papacy is brought more prominently into operation when it is shorn of temporal sovereignty. And no Pope of the present day would dream of denying or of doubting—whatever views some of his predecessors in the fifteenth or sixteenth century may have entertained—that the temporal power is only valuable as a guarantee or instrument of spiritual independence. If the spiritual authority can be maintained as well, or better, without it, *cedit questio*. That is a lesson which nobody can be surprised that Popes, and still more their counsellors and courtiers, should be slow to learn. But it is a lesson which the experience of the last seventeen years teaches in one way no less impressively than it is taught in another way by the history of the three or four previous centuries. The Vatican Council was the closing act of the secular Papacy; it is hardly too much to say that the main drift and purpose of the policy of Leo XIII. since he succeeded to the chair of Peter has been to mitigate or minimize its effects. The Jubilee of next December will bring pilgrims to Rome from every part of Europe, probably from beyond it also. They will not only find, in King Humbert's words, an honourable reception at Rome, when they come to pay their homage to the Holy Father, but they will find the Papacy itself in more honourable and influential estate than it had been for many a long year before it had ceased to count, in the eyes of Italian and especially of Roman citizens, rather for a petty Italian principedom than for the chief pastorate of the universal Church. There may be those who for that very reason would conscientiously prefer the former régime, when a Pope "throned on bayonets," to use a phrase of Lord Palmerston's, with difficulty held his rule over disaffected subjects, and was a byword or a nonentity beyond the limits of his own little State. But they would prefer it precisely because they had rather see the Roman Catholic religion weak than strong. And that is not a preference with which Popes and Cardinals can very consistently sympathize.

#### DRAMATIC RECORD.

MR. CHARLES THOMAS'S one-act play *Lady Fortune* at the Globe Theatre furnishes a remarkable instance of the manner in which actors at times run away with their author and totally obliterate his meaning. *Lady Fortune* might be made a very pleasing little piece if adequately interpreted; as presented it is a very irritating one, in spite of Mr. Thomas's cleverness. The premiss is a trifle strained; but that is allowable in romantic plays. Mrs. Cunliffe, who had apparently been a wealthy widow till a fortnight before the opening of the story, finds herself, if not ruined, in sore pecuniary straits, and is forced to leave her home to seek refuge in the fourth floor of a Bloomsbury lodging-house. She has shrunk from breaking the sad truth to her daughter Kate, and that young lady—is it possible that she finds herself on the charming heroine of Mr. Besant's novel *Children of Gibbon*?—supposes that she is on a sort of superior slumming expedition. During this little fortnight one Guy Mallory, an unappreciated young artist who lives in the attic above Mrs. Cunliffe's rooms, has not only fallen in love with Kate, but has won the silly girl's fervid affection; and she is beloved likewise by Lord Ambleby, heir to one of the oldest peerages and finest properties in England. Mrs. Cunliffe favours Ambleby's hopes, and with a great deal of wisdom; for the young lord is amiable, affectionate, sincere, and, except for the want of a little brilliance, in all respects calculated to make an excellent husband. His rival, Guy Mallory, is a conceited young idiot who, receiving a letter from a firm of publishers to whom he has sent some wretched poems (judging from an example given), assumes that they have accepted his book, and proudly declares that fame and fortune are within his grasp. Now there are instances on record of minor poets whose books have been published—as a matter of fact, Mr. Guy Mallory's productions are, and we are sure with sound reason, rejected—and who have not reaped either fame or fortune, but, on the contrary, derision from critics and the most justifiable neglect from the public, not to speak of an account showing a heavy deficit from the publishers. The girl's infatuation is altogether incomprehensible. So far as the impartial spectator can detect, there is nothing that is in the least lovable, and much that is absurd, in Mr. Guy Mallory, whereas Ambleby is, as we have said, an honest, simple-minded, kindly young fellow, of whose devotion any girl might be proud. But all this describes the piece as it is played. Mr. Charles Thomas, of course, intended an impossible and intolerable Ambleby, and a most engaging young artist, whereas the characteristics are reversed. Mr. Graham Wentworth plays Ambleby, Mr. Andrews fails to carry out the part of Mallory, and Miss Cissy Grahame is a Kate Cunliffe much too self-conscious and not nearly interesting enough.

The triteness of plot, absence of ingenuity, and lack of either wit or humour in the book of *The Sultan of Mocha* brought about the failure of the piece when it was produced some years ago. What is conventionally called a grand opera may succeed in spite of its plot, as recollection of the books which several famous composers have set, from Mozart's *Flauto Magico* downwards, will sufficiently show; but a comic opera must be made amusing or in some way attractive apart from the music. Those who are responsible for the production of *The Sultan of Mocha* have sought to leaven the inherent deficiencies of the work by brilliantly variegated costumes, ballets of sailors, peasants, and odalisques, and by the introduction of references to contemporary events. Lord Charles Beresford and the Naval Review are pressed into service—by the way, the writer of this jest seems to labour under the delusion that Lord Charles is a peer, despite his seat in the House of Commons—and there is a recondite allusion to "the Ferryman and the Baker" which evidently puzzled the audience, for French politics are not a popular study. The revival is doubtless due to the great success of *Dorothy*, for the music of *The Sultan of Mocha* is by Mr. Alfred Cellier. It is very much inferior to the later work, but nevertheless bright and tuneful, and very tastefully scored. A "Yawning Song," to quote the description in the programme, is charming—quite up to the *Dorothy* standard; the descending semi-tone for the voice, continued in the orchestra, is a very happy effect; and the song is fairly well rendered by Mr. Bracy, in the character of the sailor who pursues his sweetheart, Dolly, from Greenwich to Mocha, she having been abducted by a rascal named Sneak, and sold to the Sultan. There is nothing specially noteworthy in the other songs, which, however, maintain a general level of prettiness. Miss Violet Cameron's performance of Dolly lacks gaiety and ease; but the actress has a voice, and sings with mechanical accuracy, if without the higher qualities of vocalization. Mr. Ernest Birch, a baritone new to London, made a very favourable impression as the Sultan; and a new comedian, Mr. Charles Danby, also succeeded in diverting the audience. That he should have been able to do this in so poor a part as is here provided for him suggests the idea that Mr. Danby may prove a useful recruit to the London stage.

At the Haymarket on Tuesday a change in the cast of *The Red Lamp* was necessitated by the sudden indisposition of Mrs. Tree, whose admirable performance as the Princess Claudia will cause all playgoers to regret her absence, and to look forward to her early re-assumption of the part. In the meanwhile an excellent substitute is provided in Miss Janet Achurch, an actress of decided promise, who had already favourably impressed a London audience, and whose acting in *The Red Lamp* cannot but considerably increase public interest in her career. Less *grande dame* than Mrs. Tree in the pictorial aspect of her presentment, Miss Achurch



interprets with remarkable success the swift and strongly-contrasted emotions aroused by the revelation of the guilt of Prince Alexis. The situation, one of the most striking in this extremely effective play, where Zazzulich lays before the Princess the proofs of her brother's complicity in the Nihilists' plots, was rendered by the actress with the fullest significance. Following the anguish and distraction of this supreme moment, Miss Achurch gave convincing expression to the rapid alternation of the passions, "exulting, trembling, raging, fainting," aroused by the Princess's fear and weakness on her brother's account, her terror of Paul Demetrius, her fury and repulsion against the treacherous Zazzulich, and her love for her confiding and ignorant husband. In other respects the cast of *The Red Lamp* remains unaltered. Mr. Beerbohm Tree's fine portrait of the wily and insinuating Demetrius, as is the delightful property of all artistic conceptions, reveals on reconsideration new and unsuspected depths of subtlety, growing in impressiveness with every representation. Even the trained observation of the most diligent playgoer may detect fresh touches of art suggested by Mr. Tree's study, and thus exercise a pleasurable function that is too seldom called into activity. Naturally, also, *The Ballad-Monger* gains in representation by repetition. It now goes altogether more smoothly, and Mr. Tree's Gringoire has acquired a tone of gaiety, of additional humour and sprightliness, that perfectly accords with his conception of the light-hearted poet, while the slight excess previously noted in rendering the pathos of the scene with Loyse is thus obviated. Mr. Brookfield's Louis XI. shows an originality of conception, and a searching study of the historical character, that make it an impersonation of notable distinction and one of the best achievements of this individual actor. It is hard to explain why Mr. Brookfield's Louis XI. should have suggested to some a kind of *pastiche* after Mr. Irving's much-admired performance as the French king. Louis XI. being Louis XI., and not another, and there being authentic material as well as stage tradition at the actor's disposal to serve as the basis of study, it is only natural that the performance of the one should recall that of the other. But there is a vast difference between this necessary similarity in externals and the entirely inexcusable confusion of conceptions so vitally individual as Mr. Brookfield's and Mr. Irving's. Mr. Brookfield has always shown, sometimes aggressively, in his dramatic studies refreshing independence and thought, and his Louis XI. appears to us to diverge in no sense from these excellent characteristics.

#### THE CUSTOMS COMMISSIONERS' REPORT.

IF the revenue from imports had increased proportionately with population during the last ten years the Customs-duty should have yielded in 1886-7 21,980,435*l*. The actual yield, however, was only 20,312,886*l*.—that is to say, 1,667,547*l*. too little. The consumption of wine, spirits, and tobacco has failed to keep pace with the population; in the two former cases partly from the spread of temperance, in the latter, perhaps, because it still suffers from the check imposed in 1878, when the duty was raised 4*d*. a pound. On the other hand, the consumption of tea and cocoa has greatly increased; but these blameless beverages do not produce sufficient revenue to compensate for the alarming loss on spirituous liquors. Still, in their Thirty-first Report, the Commissioners of Customs do their best to appear cheerful. Comparing the receipts in 1886-7 with those of 1885-6, they point to an increase of 395,891*l*.; and, deducting 199,170*l*. to represent an increase corresponding to that of population, they show a balance of 196,721*l*., or an expansion of about 1 per cent. for the past year. Tea, cocoa, Geneva, and unrated spirits, tobacco, dried fruits, and plate have produced this surplus; but coffee, rum, brandy, and wine have kept it down. Tea, and at a slower rate tobacco, have been annually consumed in greater quantities for the last six years; and at present about 11*lb*. 7 *oz*. of tobacco and 4 *lbs*. 13 *oz*. of tea are credited to every man, woman, and child in the United Kingdom. Last year nearly 179 million pounds of tea, and over 52½ million pounds of tobacco were cleared for home consumption—alarming totals for those who decry to a too nervous generation the cheering cup and soothing herb. Yet the aspirations of the Commissioners are not satisfied. Tobacco continually disappoints them by not increasing with the nation's growth; and tea annoys them by becoming too strong. In 1876 84 per cent. of the tea was imported from China, 15 per cent. from India. In 1886-7 63 per cent. came from China and 32 per cent. from India. Indian tea is rapidly gaining on Chinese; and, as a pound of the former makes more cups of tea than a pound of the latter, increased imports of Indian tea tend to diminish the gross duty upon tea. Hence, that which pleases customers displeases the Customs. Cocoa, like tea, is growing fast in popularity. It has outstripped the population by 16,714*l*., and its consumption has more than doubled during the last fifteen years. Coffee, however, or rather the adulterated compound sold as coffee, shows a well-merited decline. That ill weed (at least when ill used, for it has excellent uses of its own), chicory, has grown apace, and its imported bulk is now no less than 35 per cent. of the bulk of coffee. The consumption of coffee is now less than it was twenty years ago, and last year it fell 10 per cent. The present average is about fourteen ounces of coffee and one-third that quantity of chicory per

head. A French gourmet once secured a cup of pure coffee at a cabaret by first buying up all the chicory in the neighbourhood; and, to judge from the Customs Report, some public benefactor must corner chicory if real coffee is ever to be drunk in England.

For their augmented yield of revenue the Customs authorities welcome the increase of temperance imports. But as regards spirituous drinks the Commissioners and the teetotalers are at variance. The Board incline to the view of that enthusiast who rejoiced that good liquor brought so much profit to his country, and, when spirits wane, so do the spirits of the Commissioners.

Last year, indeed, foreign spirits were more largely imported than in the preceding year—at least, Geneva and unrated spirits showed improvement. But brandy has been undermined by the phylloxera, and rum is dwindling. Moreover, the yield on British spirits, according to the Excise returns, has greatly lessened; and alcohol produced last year less duty than thirty years ago, the present gross amount being rather over 26½ millions sterling. Wine continually declines. The revenue from it has fallen 30 per cent. since 1877. Last year it suffered not only from diminished importation, but from a decrease in the rate of duty upon wines containing between 26° and 30° of proof spirit. Besides, a large part of last year's imports must be ascribed to the replenishing of stocks which, while a change of tariff was in contemplation, became depleted.

In August 1886 the standard below which wine is admitted at 1*s*. a gallon was raised from 26° to 30° in consequence of the commercial treaty with Spain. This alteration did not directly affect French wines, usually under 26°, or Portuguese wines, usually above 30°; but it admitted at 1*s*. instead of at 2*s*. 6*d*. 695,000 gallons of Spanish and 207,000 gallons of Italian and Colonial wines—the result being a loss of 67,000*l*. in duty. And, as the 30° does not, like the old standard, correspond to a distinction in the strength of natural wines, it has been necessary to test more samples, and additional trouble and expense have been involved. The Commissioners, therefore, are dissatisfied with the results of the commercial treaty; and, while they deplore the present loss of revenue on wine, forebode that when a normal state of clearance has been restored this loss will be still greater.

But, in spite of the lamentable decrease of revenue from alcohol, the Commissioners still love their fellow-men. They observe that, however unsatisfactory for the Exchequer the decline in the spirit dues may be, it shows improved habits of temperance in their countrymen, and argues a consequent advance in their material well-being.

One advantage which the Board of Customs have from their peculiar standpoint is the power of discerning some subject for congratulation in Ireland. As men they deplore the long-continued political and agrarian agitation and the steady decrease of population. But as guardians of the revenue they find satisfaction in reporting that that distressful country maintains its receipt of dutiable imports, and yielded in 1886-7 more Customs revenue than in any of the preceding nine years.

A small matter, yet worth attention, is the large importation of gold and silver plate during the past year. The Report explains it as due to the influence of the Indian and Colonial Exhibition, and to the facilities afforded for small imports by the Foreign and Colonial parcel post. In 1885-6 the Customs on gold and silver plate respectively was 34*l*. and 6,821*l*.; in 1886-7 these items stand respectively at 59*l*. and 9,010*l*.

The parcel post, however, has not brought the Board unmingled joy. It offers attractions to amateur smugglers, and has involved an increase in the Customs staff in London and at other ports to examine the parcels at the Post Office. About regular smugglers the Board have no novelty to announce. Conscious, no doubt, that their Report is rather dull reading, they must regret that "no variation of importance has been discovered in the past year in the means formerly adopted by persons attempting to defraud the revenue." Unless—which is impossible—he has escaped the vigilance of the authorities, the modern smuggler has, it seems, contrived no new device, except a spirit cask, designed in vain to elude the ordinary rules of Customs measurement. So, on the whole, the hunting branch of the department have had poor sport. It did indeed capture three coopers, two at the Shetlands and one at Hartlepool; but this scanty quarry yielded only 85*l*. in penalties beyond the value of the ships and cargoes.

A phenomenon to which the Commissioners draw attention is the steady decrease in the amount of goods imported for exportation. This seems, they say, to point to "a decline in the distributing power of this country as a central market for the goods produced in various parts of the world." How far the opening of the Suez Canal may explain this they cannot say; but they suggest that the Treasury should refer the subject for consideration to the Board of Trade.

One fact at which the Commissioners and the public, teetotal and otherwise, may rejoice in common is mentioned with pardonable pride. It is that, although the value of dutiable imports has increased 55 per cent. since 1862, the estimated cost of the Customs establishment has not since then been increased, and the actual cost of collecting this branch of revenue last year was only 4*l*. 6*s*. 2*d*. per cent. of the amount collected.

## REVIEWS.

## HYDROPHOBIA.\*

THERE can be little doubt that the recent deaths of two or three of M. Pasteur's English patients have rather shaken the confidence of those who are but imperfectly informed as to the actual stage to which the illustrious Frenchman has extended his method of the treatment of hydrophobia, and might seem to have given grounds to his declared opponents for justifying their opposition. It is the penalty which a strictly scientific procedure has to pay (when it happens to be at the same time a matter of public interest and comment) that its exact scope should be misconceived, and its real aims and capabilities considerably mistaken. The supporters of M. Pasteur, scarcely less than the detractors of his method, are responsible for much of the misconception that exists, since by too eagerly claiming absolute success they unwittingly draw down upon the proceeding much undeserved blame, when that success falls short, as in a still imperfect method it does and must. No one is more cautious in his steps than M. Pasteur himself, and it would be well if some of his advocates followed his truly scientific example.

For the better comprehension of what this benefactor of mankind aims at doing, and how far he has advanced towards the attainment of his object, we cordially welcome this small work by Dr. Suzor, which essentially consists of a translation of all M. Pasteur's communications to the Academy of Sciences and elsewhere on the subject of hydrophobia, with a description of his technique, and the latest statistical results. The circumstances under which the volume was produced are noteworthy, as may be learned from the dedication, which is to Sir John Pope Hennessy, Governor of Mauritius, and to the members of his Legislative Council, and records that, owing to their action, a delegate was "appointed to study M. Pasteur's new treatment of hydrophobia in Paris." Dr. Suzor was the delegate, and he expresses a hope "that this first example set by a small colony may not remain sterile." There will be no need to repeat this labour, so well done is it in the work before us; but there still remains plenty to be done, so that each colony, and almost, indeed, each country, may make itself practically acquainted with M. Pasteur's method, and furnish facilities for its carrying out.

Preliminary to the chief part of the work is a short description of hydrophobia, so far as known previous to the end of the year 1880, when M. Pasteur turned his attention to the disease, bringing to bear on it the ripe experience he had acquired from the successful investigation and treatment of *charbon* or splenic fever, the swine-plague, fowl-cholera, and other like maladies. The description is excellent, and well worthy of perusal by those even who are not above a free expression of opinion on this most difficult subject. From it we learn that the disease has been known from the earliest times; that it originates in the dog and other carnivora, though it is not known how, and spreads by contact or direct inoculation from them to the ox, horse, sheep, swine, and man; that subsequently to the entrance of the poison into the body it rests for a period varying from days to years, and then bursts out in a train of terrific symptoms, from which recovery has rarely, if ever, been known to follow. As might be supposed, all and the most opposite methods of treatment have been vaunted only to enjoy a brief season of repute, and then to sink into disuse. Until now we can scarcely be said to have advanced much beyond the preventive treatment first suggested by Celsus, who recommended free suction, and then thorough cauterization of the wound. But exhaustive blood-letting, excessive sweating, mercurial salivation, the arrow-poison curare, electricity, and hosts of other remedies, so-called, for the disease, when it has once manifested itself, cannot, as yet, lay claim to any real efficiency.

Police regulations also, by diminishing the total number of dogs in a country, and by enforcing the better supervision of those that remained, contributed efficiently to lessen the number of casualties, as evidenced in the cases of Germany and the Scandinavian peninsula, where the number of deaths from hydrophobia has gradually gone down from year to year until it is at present only counted by units.

In reference to this subject, however, and in view of the recently published Report of the Select Committee of the House of Lords on Rabies in Dogs, it may be well to remember that the inferences to be drawn from police interference are not always what they would seem to be. For though, as this Report recommends, it may be well that homeless wandering dogs should be seized by the police, and that means should be taken for the identification of their owners, and even that some advantage might follow the printing of a brief description of rabies on the dog licences—a proposal which was vainly urged on the Government of the day a few years ago by the authorities of the Brown Institution—and though it may even be well that dogs known to be aggressive should be muzzled, nevertheless all such precautions, whilst perhaps diminishing the spread of rabies in dogs, will leave untouched the other animals in which the disease is rife, and have no influence on the possible, or as some say certain, spontaneous origin of the disease in the dogs themselves. Neither is it always permissible to attribute to police regulations the diminution of hydrophobia. In the year 1834 nine deaths from this disease

were registered in London. In 1835 the mortality rose to twenty-seven, and fell to nine again in the following year. On December 4th, 1835, the police regulations were issued in the metropolis, and to this has often been ascribed the improved death-rate. A closer inspection, however, will show that the epidemic (for the disease certainly occurs in epidemics) was virtually at its height in 1835, and was on the decline towards the end of the year, six of the twenty-seven deaths occurring in November, and only one in December, the fall occurring long before the regulations could have exercised any such effect. The fluctuations in the mortality may be quite independent of any control, for whilst in 1876 there were six deaths in London, there were sixteen in 1877, and five, two, and three respectively in the three succeeding years.

Space prevents any description of the symptoms of rabies in animals or of hydrophobia in man, and an account of post-mortem appearances is too technical for these columns, but it may be well to point out that the horror of water, so commonly regarded as the most prominent feature of the suffering, and the source of its name, is "a result much more of the imagination of the patient and of the medical man than of the rabies virus." The conclusions respecting the periods of incubation of the disease, which Dr. Suzor quotes from Professor Brouardel, are worthy of repetition here. "Rabies," he says, "supervenes oftenest in the course of the second month after infection, rarely after the third month, and quite exceptionally after the sixth month." It also appears that the more numerous the bites, and the greater their severity, the earlier do the symptoms appear, and that they manifest themselves sooner in children than in old people. As regards the rate of mortality many difficulties present themselves in forming a proper estimate, but it is stated that after efficient and early cauterization 31 per cent. of persons bitten under the age of twenty die of hydrophobia, and 62 per cent. above that age. Dr. Suzor considers 20 per cent. to be a moderate estimate of the death-rate for all persons bitten by rabid animals not wolves, taking the cauterized and non-cauterized all together. From wolf-bites the rate has been put down at 65 per cent. The statistical results as obtained at the Pasteur Institute from July 1835 to February 1887 give the following striking figures. Of the 3,020 cases treated (inclusive of wolf-bites), only 34 died, constituting a percentage of 1.15, instead of 20 as above estimated, and this, too, before the method had been brought to its present perfection. Since the interval of incubation of the disease rarely extends beyond the third month, the period of maximum danger for these patients had passed in July when these records were compiled. Of the 34 casualties, no less than one-half occurred in children and youths under eighteen, and generally in the course of the second month after they were bitten. To the statistics M. Pasteur himself generally gives attention, leaving to his skilled assistants the actual inoculation of the patients; for he, not being a medical man, might render himself amenable to the law were he to operate. In Dr. Suzor's book the figures are submitted to a critical analysis which must be studied carefully, ere the full results of the procedure can be clearly appreciated.

The chapter which deals with the technique of M. Pasteur's method and recounts what Dr. Suzor himself saw should be deeply interesting even to a non-medical reader, as showing the extreme care which is taken not only in the preparation of the virus for inoculation, but also for the safety and protection of those concerned in carrying out the various operations. Briefly the process is as follows:—Two small pieces are taken from the brain (accurately speaking, from the medulla) of a dog that has died of rabies, these are pounded up with about half a tablespoonful of specially prepared veal broth that has been sterilized by heat; two drops of this fluid are then injected on the surface of the brain of a rabbit, which in the course of about fifteen days dies of rabies. From the medulla of this rabbit a virulent broth is prepared as before, and a second rabbit is inoculated in a similar manner to the first. This rabbit, however, develops rabies and dies somewhat sooner than the former one, and the process is repeated again and again until the period of incubation of the disease which diminishes with every successive stage of the inoculation has been reduced to seven days. From this last rabbit of the series the spinal cord is carefully removed, cut into sections about three inches long, and placed in drying bottles. A piece of this, which has been drying for fourteen days, measuring about the twenty-fifth of an inch in length, is reduced to powder and mixed with about sixteen drops of sterilized veal broth, and injected beneath the skin over the abdomen of the patient. This is the weakest virus used, and next day a similar quantity is injected, but prepared from a cord which has only been drying thirteen days, and is, therefore, somewhat stronger. The operation is repeated day after day for ten days with virus of increasing virulence, the last used being that which is only five days old, and such as may cause death if injected at first sitting. Spinal marrow that is more than fourteen days old is too weak to be of use, and that which is fresher than five days is only employed in the case of the most severe bites, and during very hot weather when the drying cords lose their virulence more rapidly than in the cold. This constitutes the entire treatment of cases where the person has been bitten through the clothes; but for bites on the hands and feet this is supplemented by repetition of the injections, the second series being administered twice daily. For serious lacerations and wounds on the face the intensive treatment is administered; this consists of the ordinary course, and a repetition after the rest of a day or two, then a third course, and

\* *Hydrophobia: an Account of M. Pasteur's System.* By Renaud Suzor, M.D. London: Chatto & Windus. 1887.



sometimes a fourth, repeating the stronger injections twice daily, and even using those of maximum virulence prepared from quite fresh rabic cords. The frequency to which the injections may be extended would seem to be considerable, M. Pasteur quite recently recording the case of a "person who wounded himself with the virus of a rabid guinea-pig, and at once began a course of preventive treatment which he continued, chiefly from motives of scientific curiosity, for more than six months. He underwent no less than 209 inoculations without the slightest injury to his health," and these included nineteen from cords only one day old. It is perfectly easy to keep such a supply of virus and spinal marrow as may furnish material to different places, and, as a matter of fact, considerable amounts of these substances are so distributed. According to date of appearance of the malady a test method is available whereby it may be ascertained whether a patient who might die subsequently to the Pasteurian treatment has succumbed to that or to the poison of the original bite. In this connexion it is interesting to find that several of the workers at M. Pasteur's institute, and about twenty sound persons engaged in branch institutes in Russia, have been inoculated as a safeguard against accidental infection.

A perusal of M. Pasteur's various communications and letters from January 1881 to December 1886 included in this volume will show how, by a cautious practice of experiment and induction, he was step by step induced to adopt the method we have briefly described, with the remarkable results we have only barely indicated. Commencing his observations with the injection of the saliva of a child who died of rabies into dogs and rabbits, he was led to foresee from his results the possibility of protecting dogs against hydrophobia, and thus indirectly preserving man himself. How far he has extended his original conception, and with what success, is now well known. But it is by a reference to his failures that we commenced, and these for a time have somewhat diverted attention from the triumphs he has gained. Concerning these, we are fortunately able to quote M. Pasteur's own words. In the *British Medical Journal* of the 17th inst. appeared a letter from him having special bearing on Lord Doneraile's death, and from this communication we gather, first, that "an interval of eleven whole days was allowed to elapse from the time the bites were inflicted till the beginning of the treatment"; and, secondly, that at the request of those interested in Lord Doneraile's case only the simple treatment was pursued, and not the modified method which M. Pasteur has been led to adopt, especially in the case of severe bites, and which has been described above. "Carried out under such conditions, the treatment, alas! could only delay the development of the rabic virus for four or five months. There are, it is true, circumstances in which the treatment has proved ineffectual even when it has been begun soon after the bites; but, in addition to the fact of the extreme rarity of these cases, is it a matter for wonder that in such a subject there should still be unknown points which defy the explanation of science?" No doubt it may not do to rely for explanation on exceptional cases; but they recur with sufficient frequency in connexion with questions such as this to necessitate their being reckoned with.

M. Pasteur's treatment is well styled by himself prophylactic, and for this purpose inoculation may be practised prior to infection. It is not, and does not claim to be, in any degree curative. It is powerless against the disease when the first symptoms have made their appearance, and probably even for a few days before; hence the necessity, it cannot be too often repeated, of early treatment, before the virus has taken possession of the system. If this be so, the disadvantage under which this country is placed is obvious. In Russia and Italy, at Constantinople and Havana, there are public institutions where the treatment can be carried out; but in England, which has not hitherto been wont to be behind in adopting methods for the alleviation of suffering, we look in vain; as yet no such institution exists. We may here repeat, from the Report of the Committee of Inquiry into M. Pasteur's treatment of Hydrophobia, on which we commented in our issue of July 2nd, the expression of opinion that "it may be deemed certain that M. Pasteur has discovered a method of protection from rabies comparable with that which vaccination affords against infection from small-pox"; and, further, "It would be difficult to over-estimate the importance of the discovery, whether from its practical utility or from its application to general pathology." And the Select Committee of the House of Lords before referred to have since that date recommended that, in the event of it being conclusively proved that M. Pasteur's system provides a preventive remedy, facilities should be afforded for its application in England. The figures we have quoted should furnish sufficient grounds for giving immediate effect to that recommendation. To one, and a painful, aspect of the case we must refer, and preferably so in the words of Dr. Sutor, who occupies the position of an independent critic:—"The question of cruelty to animals has been loudly raised, in England in particular, and has led to incredible excesses of language. We shall not deal at length with it, and shall simply declare that we have plenty of sympathy with the animals sacrificed, but none at all with their short-sighted, weak-hearted, would-be defenders, who would gladly leave thousands of human beings, many of them children, to die from the most horrible death, and thousands more to mourn and suffer, in order to save, until to-morrow, the lives of rabbits."

## LETTER BOOKS OF CHRIST CHURCH, CANTERBURY.\*

THIS new volume of the Rolls Series is the first of a selection made, or in making, and edited by Dr. Brigstocke Sheppard, of letters from the registers of the Monastery of Christ Church, Canterbury. From among the mass of documents and epistles before him, the editor has chosen "such inedited examples as are nearly connected with the history of the metropolitical church of Canterbury, and such as illustrate the political, ecclesiastical, and social relations of that great corporation." The earliest register here drawn upon is of the fourteenth century, through which period the present volume takes us as far as January 1333. The editor supplies a preface which will be of value both to those interested in the history of Canterbury, and to students of ecclesiastical and monastic history generally. Thus he gives an account of the controversy as to the relative dignity of the Churches and Archbishops of Canterbury and York—for long a serious question, and here illustrated by two characteristic letters of Archbishop Winchelsey. Of that Primate the editor has a good deal to tell, including his posthumous history, for there was an attempt to set up Winchelsey as a saint, though he never achieved the honour of a formal canonization. His tomb had its pilgrims, whose zeal one year, 1320, produced 90*l.* in offerings. Then his fame began to wane, and at last there were only left a few old admirers to contribute a poor seventeen pence—"thus marking the end of his short-lived immortality," as the editor oddly expresses it. There is much about controversies and litigation with the rival house of St. Augustine; about the relations of Christ Church with the town and port of Sandwich; and about the annual grant of wine of Poissy, given to Christ Church by the French Kings for love of St. Thomas. It appears that the wine, as might be expected from the produce of vineyards near Paris, was of poor quality, and that, as it would not "travel," the Canterbury monks had to employ agents to sell it on the spot—whereof came much correspondence, and apparently little profit or satisfaction to the principals. There are some interesting remarks upon "liveries" and "corrodies"; also upon the spelling and syntax of the MSS., which, we are glad to learn, are printed letter for letter—except where diphthongs are used as prescribed by the rule of the Rolls Series. In communications with "the polite but unlearned world" the monks wrote in French, and evidently spelt it phonetically. Of these letters translations are given. We notice that at pp. 408, 409, "par reddour de seignurye" is rendered "by the strictness of our feudal power." It would, we think, be better not to introduce a technical word like *feudal* unless it occurs in the original. "Lordship" or "our power as lord" might have served the purpose. We also feel a doubt whether "le boys de chayne et de fou" (p. 490) should be translated "the oak timber and the firewood." *Fou* is, we admit, an early form of *feu*, but it is also an old name for the beech (*fagus*), and we think that "oak and beech wood" is more likely to be the meaning.

Both in the preface and in the *Littera* the most important passages are those which bear upon the overthrow and deposition of Edward II. Not that they supply any new facts; but they give us the private and confidential views of a prominent churchman of the day. The writer was Henry of Eastry, Prior of Christ Church, a man of great age and experience, and a sort of adviser-general to Archbishop Walter Raynold, or Reynolds. The letters were strictly confidential—"Istam, pater, cedula non aspicit oculus alienus, propter varios rerum eventus," is the conclusion of one in which the Prior, ever a cautious man, advises the Archbishop to excuse himself from accompanying Queen Isabel to France—that visit from which she returned to dethrone and imprison her husband. There is a long letter (12 March, 1326), written in anticipation of her return in more or less hostile manner, and advising the Archbishop how best to steer a middle course between her and the King. If the latter should require "aliquid arduum"—which seems to mean anything that would commit the Archbishop to his Royal master's side—in that case discretion must be used, "for the commandments of God himself are not implicitly obeyed, nor can those of man possibly be in these days." As for the reports of a large French army being collected for the invasion of England, the Prior does not think that there is much in them as yet. His ease of mind on this subject did not proceed from any excess of confidence in his own countrymen, for he says that the Kentish folk "*debilis est et pauper*," especially along the coast, and he suspects that in event of the appearance of a hostile fleet, the maritime population would fly inland without fighting. But he was evidently habitually scornful of French bluster. In a previous letter he consoles his correspondent under similar fears by remarking, "*Mos est Gallicorum terrorem et timorem frequentius pugno aliis incutere, quam gladios evaginare, et aiquis minimum digitum viderit cruentatum, statim caput suum aestimat amputatum.*" When in September 1326 the Queen actually landed with a force of Hainauters, the Archbishop evidently wrote off in a panic to know what he was to do now. Prior Henry, whose calm is no doubt, as the editor unkindly suggests, to be explained by the

\* *Littera Cantuarienses. The Letter Books of the Monastery of Christ Church, Canterbury.* Vol. I. Edited by J. Brigstocke Sheppard, LL.D. Published by the authority of the Lords Commissioners of Her Majesty's Treasury, under the direction of the Master of the Rolls. London: Eyre & Spottiswoode. Edinburgh: Adam & Charles Black. Dublin: Hodges, Figgis, & Co. 1887.

fact that he was not himself called upon to take any active part, gives his usual sort of trimming advice. If the King ("quod abist") will make a fight for it, the Archbishop is to consider that "ambigua sunt fata guerrarum," and to confine himself to his spiritual arms—on which side he is to employ them is left in doubt. But soon after this the correspondents no doubt learned that the Queen's party was rapidly gaining strength; and at last the Archbishop took a decided step and joined the Queen—with his friend's full approval after the fact. Even then our Prior was not going to commit himself. The reiterated request that his letters may be kept secret or destroyed—"Lecta littera comburatur"—show his anxiety not to be known as the Archbishop's adviser; and when summoned to the momentous Parliament which deposed the King, he would only send his proxy. Nevertheless he gave advice behind the scenes. From him proceeds a suggestion that the Parliament should send a deputation of four lords, four knights, and four burgesses to summon the King. This, we know, was actually done, without success—success, indeed, was probably neither expected nor desired. Even in the Prior's cautious phrases it may pretty clearly be read that he regarded his scheme only as a means of enabling the Parliament to say that it had made every effort to come to an understanding with the King—"ita quod omnia rite fiant antequam ulterius procedatur." *Uterius*, as we know, in the result meant dethronement. Dr. Sheppard comments on the entire absence, in the Prior's letters, of any preference for one side or the other, except as a mere matter of expediency. Of patriotism, of care for the welfare of the nation, of any personal likings for the King or the Queen, of any wish that one side might win rather than the other, of any attempt to weigh the relative merits of the competing parties, there are no traces. Though Archbishop Raynold had been Edward's tutor, and owed everything to his favour, it never seems to have occurred to his correspondent that either affection or gratitude could have anything to say in the matter. To keep out of trouble appears throughout to be the only object aimed at. In fact, the letters stand as an early example of the cult of the jumping cat. Then, as now, that sacred animal was only worshipped in secret. In public, a grander tone had to be taken. It was this same Archbishop Raynold who, when the King was deposed, gave his support to the winning side, in the words, "Vox populi, vox Dei."

There are many minor matters of interest, chief among which we notice the curious incident of the monks being boycotted, as the editor calls it, or at least being threatened with boycotting, for refusing to bear part of the city's expenses in providing knights for the Scottish war in 1327. There is about a page of the resolutions passed in consequence by the Bailiff and "*populares homines*" of Canterbury; one being that no one in the city or suburb should supply victuals to the Prior and Convent; and another, that no pilgrim should enter the Church except upon oath that he would make no offering there. A letter from Prior Henry shows that at any rate these awful threats were not put into immediate execution; and a Royal writ of special protection (or perhaps only the draft of a form to be submitted to the King) follows. As we see no signs of further trouble, we may hope that the King's authority was too much for the "revolutionary tribunal" of the *populares homines* of Canterbury.

#### WORSHIP AND ORDER.\*

THE appearance of the second edition of Mr. Beresford Hope's *Worship and Order*, originally published four years ago, has followed almost immediately the presentation to him of an address signed by the most prominent men of the day, laymen as well as clerics, who are interested in ecclesiastical matters—of an address of congratulation on his recovery from a serious illness. The fact is not noticed in the preface, as it might perhaps have been by some persons fond of putting their personal affairs before the public; but the book itself is a kind of unintentional setting forth of the claims of the writer to so unusual an honour. As Mr. Beresford Hope observes, during the four years which have passed since he first collected these essays (themselves stretching in period of composition and subject to a period more than thirty years off then and nearly forty now) the unexpected and strange distractions of secular politics have a little averted public attention from ecclesiastical matters, but the process of lengthening the cords and strengthening the stakes of the Church of England has gone on interruptedly. If he had made a summary of the actual events that have recently occurred concerning the two chief divisions of his book (of which divisions more presently) it would have been no barren one. The work of extending the episcopate has gone on and is going on steadily, and the most important symbol of that work, the erection of an actual cathedral at Truro, built anew (with the exception of an insignificant part) as a cathedral for the first time since the Reformation, is far on towards completion, and is likely to provide one of the most remarkable and meritorious ecclesiastical edifices erected in England since the dying out of the school of Wren, some hundred and fifty years ago. On the other side of the work efforts (not, we confess, in our own judgment very well-considered efforts) have been made to connect Church and people more directly by democratizing the parish system; and, if the defeat of them is satisfactory, the better side of the spirit

which prompted them is in its way satisfactory also. An attempt in a somewhat similar direction, but more consonant to Church tradition and with less mischievous elements, has been made in the institution of the House of Laymen. The threatenings of Disestablishment have not, of course, died away; but the haste of the Liberal leaders to disavow any direct connexion with them at the general election of two years ago is, to say the least, not a discouraging sign. Such argument as Liberationism has ever had to show for itself in the historical and legal department has been smitten and crushed with unusual precision and force by a principal living exponent of the ecclesiastical law. On the other side, there is no denying that the ill-judged persecutions of earnest clergymen for being too earnest have not ceased; but the latest of them which attracted much public attention—that of Mr. Bell Cox—can hardly be said to have been a success for such persecution. With the daily multiplication of benefactions to the Church, the daily spread of lay organization supporting the Church, and the daily decrease of the number of neglectful or unfit occupants of the clerical office, the task of the enemy grows constantly more difficult, and the amount of even possible success on his part constantly smaller and less important. The survey ought not to be unsatisfactory to one who has done, to say no more, as much as any layman to strengthen the Church of England for a whole generation.

These essays, it has been said, cover a considerable period of time; but they may, as has also been said, be divided pretty sharply under two heads, corresponding fairly enough to the division of the double title. In those which come under the first head the writer deals with the organization of worship, more especially in cathedral, but also in parochial, churches. In the second he deals with that question of discipline which has for many years been a source at once of healthy stimulus and of unhealthy dissension, the question of the matter called vaguely, and rather in deference to popular language than for any other reason, "Ritualism." In one place here Mr. Beresford Hope frankly enough disclaims the title of Ritualist for himself, and hints not obscurely that he by no means approves *en bloc* (as, indeed, no one who holds fast to the tradition of the Universal Church in general, and of the Church of England in particular, can approve) of all the proceedings of the people called Ritualists. But his article on "Dean Howson before the Table" is, and is likely to remain, one of the most important and convincing treatments of what is by far the most important point in the whole Ritualist controversy—the eastward position. The Dean himself is dead, and even if he were not, the memorable fashion in which he was (with perfect charity and courtesy) made a spectacle to men and angels by his own bishop, in reference to this very question, would incline all honest folk to personal compassion for him. But the theories which he espoused—or rather the confused mass of prejudice and passion for which he was a well-intentioned spokesman—prevail to some extent, even to a considerable extent. And it may be said, in brief, that Mr. Beresford Hope's handling of the question, and of those connected with it, is rendered peculiarly valuable by one thing. He does not, as some very good people have done, allow himself to be carried away by natural indignation at the thought that men should be punished for doing too much, for contravening by excess what may by a tissue of elaborate and questionable argument be regarded as being or having been the intention of the Church, while there has never been a single successful attempt to punish those who either deliberately and as a matter of what they call principle, or carelessly and out of ostentatious neglect, transgress by omission or by positive disobedience the plainest and clearest injunctions of the actually written law. There is no doubt that this is an almost intolerable scandal. But the sense of it has frequently made Ritualist advocates—those even who take Mr. Beresford Hope's own position—forget that appeal to sentiment is of no sort of use. "Thyself shalt see the act," or shalt have the reasonable deduction from the act made out, is the only motto of setting to work, and it is because Mr. Beresford Hope has in the article just referred to and in that on the Ridsdale judgment observed this method that his work is of distinct, and is likely to be of abiding, value.

For ourselves we confess to a certain preference for the other branch of the contents—the papers dealing with the general subject of Cathedral and Parochial Worship, and relegating for the time the Church Association, the Aggrieved Parishioner, and the not always judicious provokers of those evil agencies to obscurity. No one, certainly no layman, has been more active than the author in vindicating the position and function of cathedrals from the singularly crass utilitarianism which was almost universal some decades ago, and which even now is far too common. The question "What is the use of a cathedral?" (we are, of course, not speaking of those in whose mouth it would merely be a particular form of the question What is the use of a church at all?) is still not infrequent, and it is that which in more than one paper here the writer has set himself to answer, the force of his answers having been already proved by an ever-increasing tendency to adapt the buildings and the institutions in question to their proper purpose. We say the buildings and institutions, for it is one of Mr. Beresford Hope's pet arguments, and one which he urges with much vigour, that you must have your cathedral institution as well as your cathedral building. Unluckily the not altogether ill-intentioned, but almost wholly ill-directed, reforms of some half-century since have made this difficult. As is well urged here, the very worst means of reforming a body of men who do not do their duty enough (and the stoutest

\* *Worship and Order*. By the Right Hon. A. J. B. Beresford Hope, M.P. Second edition. London: Murray. 1887.



ecclesiastical Tory will hardly maintain that cathedral establishments did their duty enough sixty years ago) is to cut them down, so that it becomes impossible for them to do it at all. With the cathedral itself once more adapted to the purposes of varied and constant services (and Mr. Beresford Hope does excellent work in pointing out that the very parts now thought the merest curiosities, such as the triforium, ought to be put, and can be put, to as much practical use as the ugliest eighteenth-century gallery), and with the cathedral establishment made a centre of missionary work throughout the diocese, it would be very hard for the merest quibbler to accuse the "bloated Chapter" of idleness, or the cathedral of inutility.

Another subject of the essayist's labours (in regard to which time has brought him less, though still some, success) is the organization of parishes in something the same way. Here the well-intentioned but ignorant labours of reform above referred to not only did not do the right thing, and did do the wrong, but contrived to interpose a very ingenious hindrance in the way of setting the wrong right. The immense number of district churches and districts, cut out of old parishes, and endowed to no small extent with the spoils of cathedral establishments, have done much good, no doubt. But there is also no doubt that they have not done so much good as might have been done in another way, and that they interpose an almost insurmountable barrier in the way of doing it. For country parishes it would probably be impossible to devise anything better than the ordinary parochial plan. But few people who know much of town church work will hesitate between the district and "perpetual curate" system of single-handed, insufficiently-endowed parsons, with churches which in many cases, since the abolition of church rates, they can hardly keep in repair, with houses out of all proportion to their income, with neither hands nor resources for attractive and numerous services and for thorough parish organization, on the one hand, and, on the other, the plan of quasi-collegiate churches which Mr. Beresford Hope advocates, where the district to be managed and the work to be, as Scotchmen say, "overtaken" are both larger, but where the amalgamation permits grander churches, organized and regimented work, a gradation of rank—implying chances of promotion—and a central fund of some magnitude to draw upon. We say that this ideal has by no means achieved the same realization as the other, though of course it has been realized in not a few cases. The reason is, also of course, obvious—that the actual formation of districts stands in the way. But no one who gives the subject a few minutes' thought can fail to see the superiority of the plan here recommended in cases where a small, or comparatively small, sum of money has to provide for the spiritual and temporal wants of a populous district, and, at the same time, to train and regiment the *personnel* of the Church in the manner best suited to develop and utilize the talents as well as to consult the welfare of the clergy.

## CRANMER.\*

LIKE nine out of every ten books with the title *Life and Times* of some one, Mr. Collette's *Life and Times of Cranmer* is a scrambling production, put together with as little system as a sackful of chaff. Although one of his title-pages announces a "*Life of Cranmer*," he has not attempted to write one, partly, he tells us, because he would have found it difficult to do so impartially, which we can readily believe, and partly because he was afraid of sending his readers to sleep. What he has written, though wearisome, has, so far from sending us to sleep, made us open our eyes wider than usual. His own account of his volume is that he has "marked out a new line of proceeding, by taking the more prominent incidents of the *Life and Times of Cranmer*, viewed with the surrounding circumstances wherein he has been both censured and commended." Although he considers that he has avoided controversy, and has written dispassionately, he is constantly jeering Roman Catholics with what he believes to be their religion, he gives up much space to attacking books that either never were, or have long ceased to be, of any importance, and he shows that he does not know how he ought to speak of his betters. He presumes to sneer at Dr. Lingard for recording, "while sitting calmly in his study," that Cranmer signed seven successive recantations, a statement that, wherever Lingard may have been when he wrote it, is, of course, indisputably correct, though a silly attempt is made here to throw doubt upon it. And he is guilty of the monstrous impertinence of insinuating that the judgment of the learned editor of *Records of the Reformation* is warped by the fact that he is what Mr. Collette is pleased to call a "Ritualistic priest," and has signed the "Remonstrance against the Purchase (*sic*) judgment." Misprints arising either from ignorance or carelessness are frequent, and are of a piece with the rest of Mr. Collette's work. The object of his book appears to be to prove that Cranmer was worthy of the place he considers that he occupied as the "great Master Builder of our Reformed Church." While he allows that some of the Archbishop's actions are worthy of blame, he seeks to excuse most of them by asserting, sometimes that other men did or would have done the same, and sometimes that they ought really to be laid to the charge of the Pope, and that they were committed while Cranmer was "a member of the Unreformed Church," English Churchmen before the days of Edward VI. of B. memory being,

of course, incapable of distinguishing between right and wrong. It may, however, reasonably be doubted whether a man who was the ready tool of those in power, and was always under the guidance of some stronger will than his own ought to be called the master-builder of anything. Cranmer—who, by the way, was not born in Northamptonshire—is defended against the accusations that have been brought against him with reference to his marriage with "Black Joan," though it is impossible to deny that he lodged her with her relation, the hostess of the "Dolphin" at Cambridge, while he lived in college, and difficult to believe that he did not do so in the hope of concealing his marriage.

Mr. Collette has a good deal to say about the divorce of Henry VIII. from Queen Katharine; his ignorance is great, and, though we do not forget how religious prejudice acts upon ignorant minds, we fear that we must say that he shows something very like literary dishonesty. We pass over such comparatively small matters as the assertion that Prince Arthur died within a fortnight, instead of about five months, after his marriage, to come to what is said of Henry's conduct. In order to prove that the King's anxiety for a divorce had nothing to do with his desire for a marriage with Anne Boleyn, we are told that Anne, who is said to have gone to France in 1514, is supposed not to have returned to England until 1527. The first date shows that Mr. Collette holds to the old confusion between Anne and her sister Mary; the second that he has either never read or did not choose to refer to the notice in the State Papers of her presence at a Court revel early in 1522. Her return to England in 1521 is, however, mentioned by Dr. Friedmann. Mr. Collette, though he does not know how to spell Dr. Friedmann's name, refers occasionally to his *Anne Boleyn*. How is it that he quietly sets aside his authority in this matter? And why, without giving a hint to his readers that Dr. Friedmann, the late Mr. Brewer, and Mr. J. Gairdner have on what every one who knows anything about the matter knows to be excellent grounds, arrived at a different conclusion, does he quietly assert as a fact what they have all declared to be untrue? For the real origin of the King's "conscientious scruples" he refers us to the story of the denial of Mary's legitimacy by the Bishop of Tarbes in 1526. This, he says, led Henry to consult Wolsey on the matter, adding "and let it be noted that Anne Boleyn had not yet been heard of at Court." It is really almost impossible that he can have been ignorant of the utter worthlessness of the story about the Bishop of Tarbes, or of the King's interference with Lord Henry Percy's scheme of marriage with Anne, "a foolish girl in the Court," as early as 1522. In that year began, as Mr. Gairdner has pointed out, the series of grants of lands and honours to Anne's father, and there can be little doubt that they should be connected with Henry's fancy for her. The assertion that she became the King's mistress is, we are told, a "cruel slander" and a "dastardly libel," and a sentence from Lingard's *History of England* is quoted as though it bore out this opinion. Now the sentence refers to an occurrence placed by Lingard under the date 1525, and no one pretends that Anne was the King's mistress then. Lingard repeatedly asserts that she became so afterwards, and Mr. Collette must have known this when he quoted his authority to the contrary. If she was not Henry's mistress, it is odd that he should have publicly treated her with the honour due only to his neglected Queen, that the Pope should have plainly accused him of cohabitation with her, and that, as far as is known, he should never have denied the accusation. Indeed, the case is so clear that it is scarcely worth arguing about. Cranmer climbed to power by helping on the marriage of the King and his mistress. He became a member of the Earl of Wiltshire's (Sir T. Boleyn's) household—a pleasing family it must have been to live with—and he made himself so useful in the King's "great cause" that Henry saw that he would secure the services of an invaluable instrument by making him Archbishop of Canterbury. While Mr. Collette allows that Protestants have a right to blame Cranmer for his dishonest dealing with reference to the oath of obedience to the Pope, he charitably contends that Roman Catholics are debarred from doing so by the character of "their books of so-called Moral Theology." At the same time, he hints, in a fashion that does him little credit, that Cranmer's conduct admits of some excuse, as being no worse than that of the bishops generally who renounced the Papal supremacy. The two cases are, of course, wholly dissimilar.

The new Archbishop at once began to show his subserviency to the King by requesting to be allowed to judge his "great cause." No notice is taken of the grovelling tone of his letters on the subject, and Mr. Collette, who is so severe on the teaching of certain Roman Catholics concerning questions of casuistry, is guilty of quoting from these letters only a part of a sentence which gives a wholly erroneous idea of the position Cranmer chose to take "prostrate at the feet of your Majesty." Nor are we told anything of the letter in which he expresses his fear lest the Queen, whom he had pronounced contumacious for refusing to obey his summons, should learn the day on which he proposed to give judgment against her and appear in the court. His timidity was conspicuous over and over again, and especially in the letter he wrote about the charges brought against Anne, and in his signing the warrant for Seymour's execution. Mr. Collette believes that "the real question would be whether Seymour deserved his fate." There can, indeed, be no question that Cranmer was guilty of a gross violation of ecclesiastical law in signing his death-warrant. Mr. Collette states that he was "foremost in the defence of Somerset"; he forgets to mention that, at the last, he basely turned against him. Although

\* *The Life, Times, and Writings of Thomas Cranmer, D.D.* By Charles Hastings Collette. London: George Redway. 1887.

Cranmer took an active part in several prosecutions for heresy, he is not to be blamed overmuch on that account. He simply acted either as the law directed, or as he was bidden by those whose word stood for law. And did the "relentless persecutor" Bonner act otherwise? Neither protested against the work they had to do, and both showed a cold-blooded indifference to the sufferings of others. Cranmer's remarks on the condemnation of Fryth and Andrewe are given here, happily without an attempt at extenuation. In another letter, of which no mention is made, he begs Cromwell to present his chaplain to a living in Somerset, the rector being then in prison for speaking against the Royal supremacy; for the Archbishop reckoned on the poor man's execution, though he had not as yet been indicted. Indeed, Cranmer's letters, which are here said to be "his best credentials in the face of friends and of foes," seem to us to contain grounds for some of the most damaging charges that can be made against him. Mr. Collette's account of his other writings calls for little remark, save that he falls into an error through accepting the Archbishop's description of Matthew's Bible. We have only been able to note a comparatively small number of the blunders, misrepresentations, and evidences of religious spite contained in this volume; to expose the whole of them we should probably need the larger part of one of the numbers of this *Review*. The character of Mr. Collette's book has forced us to dwell on some of the most unpleasant incidents in Cranmer's life; we do not, however, forget that he was pious, able, and moderate in temper, that his last moments were worthy of the office he had borne, and that we owe much to his devout mind and his exquisite taste in liturgical composition.

#### EGYPTIAN TEXTILES IN THE SOUTH KENSINGTON MUSEUM.\*

THERE is a special interest in the designs of early woven stuffs arising from the fact that textile patterns appear to have been the first class of ornament that was invented by primeval man; moreover, as civilization and skill in the various handicrafts advanced, woven patterns supplied the earliest designs for decorative painting and sculpture among many races and at many different periods. The fact is that some simple form of recurring geometrical pattern comes, as it were, naturally and without any effort, as a pleasant relief to the monotony of passing the shuttle through the strained threads of the warp. Thus the primitive weaver, while preparing for his simple web of dried grass, would naturally sort his grasses into bundles of different tints of yellow or brown, and would give interest to his, or more probably her, work by using the different shades of colour in alternation or in various combinations of succession.

In this way a striped pattern, simplest and earliest of all designs, would be produced without any increase of manual dexterity or improvement of mechanism. The next stage probably would be to set up the warp with alternating colours in the thread or grass, and then, by repeating the use of two tints in the shuttle-weft, a square chequer or diaper would be produced. Other combinations requiring more ingenuity would soon follow; and the simple patterns which grew, as it were, naturally out of the exigencies of the loom supplied endless motives for wall-decoration, pottery, and other branches of the lesser arts.

This is seen in a very striking way in much of the early wall-painting of ancient Egypt, where large surfaces are covered with checks and zigzags, copied exactly from woven matting. So, also, in the prehistoric palace at Tiryns much of the wall-painting is closely imitated from textile patterns; even the fringe or salvage edges of the stuffs being copied by the painter as the borders of his painted designs.

In archaic pottery the same use of textile motives is no less frequent, as may be seen in most of the prehistoric pottery from Mycenæ, Hissalik, and other places, and also with no less clearness on the early vases of Cyprus and other Hellenized islands. In some cases these textile patterns survived for many centuries after their origin had been forgotten; and on Greek vases of the fifth and fourth centuries B.C. we may often see bands of mat-like chequers exactly similar to those of prehistoric times used in conjunction with the elaborate and skilfully-drawn figure subjects of fully developed Hellenic art.

On woven stuffs themselves the same conservative character of the motives is very noticeable, so that in textiles of one period we may often see the designs of many centuries earlier.

The recent acquisition by the South Kensington Museum of a large collection of patterned stuffs from Egypt, some dating probably from as early as the second or third century A.D., is one of great importance. Specimens of ancient figured stuffs have been till now among the rarest of all relics of ancient times. Almost the only important examples of early date were the woven fabrics found in a tomb at Kertch (Panticapæum), the work, probably, of Greek weavers in about the time of Alexander the Great, now preserved in the Museum at St. Petersburg. Though dating five hundred years or more earlier than the Egyptian stuffs, yet some of the designs are in both cases closely similar both in drawing and colour, especially some highly-decorative bands of animals and birds, ducks and lions being especially common both in the Greek and the Egypto-Roman patterns.

The cemetery which has yielded this rich store of textiles is at Akkîm, on the east bank of the Nile, about halfway between Thebes and Assiout. Burials here have evidently taken place during a period of many centuries. Some, judging from the designs on the dresses found in the graves, date back to the second or third century after Christ, the patterns being pagan and purely classical in style. Others, on the contrary, date from Christian times, and have ornaments of quite different character, with rude figures of Coptic saints.

This collection has been catalogued with great care and unsparing labour by Mr. Alan Cole, who has also written a very interesting introductory preface on the subject of ancient textiles generally. The whole work, though printed in the unpretending form of a shilling catalogue in paper covers, is really a valuable addition to the literature on this interesting subject, and well deserves to be republished in a better form, with illustrations of some of the designs, many of which are of very great beauty, real models of what is most excellent in the art of pattern-weaving.

The most perfect whole dresses which were found were mostly tunics of a dalmatic-like form, made of pure flaxen stuff, and decorated with borders and panels (or "orphreys," as they might be called) woven in different-coloured wools on a flaxen warp. Some of the most beautiful designs are formed of the vine-plant, with clusters of grapes, used either to fill a panel or repeating on a long strip of border. Nothing could surpass the skill with which these are arranged, the perfect mean being obtained between dull geometrical stiffness on the one hand and an excessive realistic freedom on the other. So excellent are the designs that in many cases the utmost richness of effect is produced by the use of one colour only, and that not a brilliant one, but merely a warm brown or an almost black blue or purple. Though less artistically beautiful, the patterns which have figure subjects are even more interesting, and some of these are most remarkable technical feats of minute weaving, with a variety of brilliantly dyed wools, the general effect of which is almost like that of a miniature painting.

So wonderful is the state of preservation of many of these glossy patterned stuffs, and so brilliant are the colours, that it is at first difficult to believe that wool, and not silk, is the material used.

A great variety of figure subjects occur among the patterns of Pagan date; some have what appear to be Dionysiac scenes, or men hunting, or warriors on horseback. One very curious piece has a group of a hero overcoming an Amazon-like figure—a design which recalls the favourite Greek subject of Ajax and the Amazonian Queen, as it is represented in repoussé bronze on the wonderful shoulder-piece from Siris which is now in the British Museum, and on other works of art. As, however, the hero wears a Phrygian cap, and is holding the conquered female by the hair, it is, as Mr. Cole suggests, possible that this may be a recollection of the myth of Perseus and Medusa.

Two other fragments are of special interest from their explanatory Greek inscriptions: one is a nude standing figure of Hermes, with the name EPMHC by it; the other, representing Apollo, has the inscription [AΠ]OΛΛΩΝ.

Another figure of Mercury is very remarkable for its extreme delicacy of detail, in which the touches of a painter's brush are closely imitated, with extraordinary skill, though the decorative effect is far inferior to that of the simple designs of fruit and leaves.

Though, as previously mentioned, none of these textiles are probably earlier than the second century A.D., yet we have in many cases what appear to be survivals of much older patterns. For example, one of the vine borders is almost identical in design with that round the obverse of a beautiful Boeotian didrachm of c. 400 B.C.; the same design also occurs on many Greek vases of about the same date.

Thus, though degraded in form, it is highly probable that many of the figure subjects are derived from much older motives. This is certainly the case with the bands of birds and animals, which are treated with far superior decorative effect to any of the designs with human figures. One large class of these stuffs is, as Mr. Cole points out, designed exactly like those great Roman mosaic floors, covered with roundels containing beasts or deities, which were so largely made for Roman houses in the third and fourth centuries A.D.

Another motive, that of the Assyrian sacred tree between its guardian beasts, or "cherubs," as they are called in the book of Kings i. 6, is, as might be expected, very frequent in this collection. This motive, one of the earliest which anywhere exists, survived for thousands of years in a most extraordinary way, and was carried with the spread of the textile art from country to country all over Europe. Starting from the great valley of the Euphrates, this design spread to ancient Greece and Rome; revived again in the Byzantium of Justinian's time, and was brought to Sicily by the Arab weavers, who established the great centre of silk-weaving at Palermo; thence it passed to Northern Italy in the fourteenth century, and even now, in a degraded form, its meaning long since forgotten, it is still used by the embroiderers and carpet-weavers of Persia and Asia Minor.

The later class of these Akkîm textiles, though similar in technical treatment, is very different, and mostly very inferior in design. The most remarkable patterns represent rudely-drawn and very grotesque figures of Coptic saints with large nimbi; some on horseback probably represent the favourite saints, George, Demetrius, or Theodore. Others have still ruder standing figures

\* *A Descriptive Catalogue of a Collection of Tapestry-woven and Embroidered Egyptian Textiles in the South Kensington Museum.* By Alan S. Cole.



with nothing to distinguish them, often set one above the other in tall bands, like the saints on the orphrey of a mediæval cope.

The method of execution employed in these dresses is well described by Mr. Alan Cole. The main stuff is simple linen, woven from flaxen thread in the ordinary shuttle-loom; the patterns are worked in a different way, and seem in most cases to be true tapestry in coloured wools on a flaxen warp.

Tapestry differs from ordinary weaving in not having a visible weft thrown completely across the loom, but has its design formed by short stitches knotted across the strained threads of the warp with a wooden peg or needle, now called a "broach." It is, in fact, a sort of link between true textile work and embroidery, from which it differs in having its stitches applied, not to a finished web or stuff, but on to the open strings of a warp. In many cases these tapestry patterns have evidently been worked separately and then sown like patches into their place in the linen garment. A large number of the patterns have details, such as outlines or the ribs of leaves applied by the embroiderer's needle over the finished tapestry work. In this way great spirit and freedom of line was given to the design.

The dyes used in these woollen patterns are most remarkable for their beauty, and in most cases for their brilliance of preservation, especially the gorgeous scarlet from the *kermes*, a little cochineal-like insect which lives on the ilex-oaks of Arcadia and Asia Minor, and also the deep indigo blues, gained by repeating dipping in the vat. Oranges and green of the most brilliant tint have also lasted in apparently undiminished freshness. One dye only appears to have been fatally destructive in rotting the woollen thread, and that is an ink-like dye of dark brown or black, made with tannin and some salt of iron, the destructive effect of which may also be seen in most old Persian carpets, in which the parts dyed with this compound have usually rotted almost completely away. All the other colours used by the Egyptian dyers seem not only to have been harmless to the wool, but also to have preserved their hue in a most remarkable way.

The South Kensington Museum may be warmly congratulated on the acquisition of this very valuable collection, which, added to the older Bock collection of mediæval stuffs, make up a total which cannot be equalled by the textiles of any other museum in the world. The Science and Art Department is also fortunate in possessing among its officials one who is both able and willing to do such useful work as the compilation of this descriptive catalogue. One cannot but regret that the arrangement of the specimens in the show-cases has not also been entrusted to Mr. Alan Cole; they seem at present to be exhibited without any attempt at chronological classification, the only reasonable arrangement in such a case. It is, however, something to be thankful for that the labels, cut from Mr. Cole's catalogue, which are appended to each specimen, are so accurate and instructive; this is very far from being the case with a large number of objects in the same Museum, the educational value of which is seriously damaged by the utter absurdity of many of the labels, even of the most important objects. As an example of this we may note that the very beautiful wooden statue of an angel, colossal in size, from Pisa, one of the finest and most interesting pieces of sculpture at South Kensington, is labelled as a work of the fifteenth century, whereas in reality it is a very noble work of the school of Nicola or Giovanni Pisano, dating certainly not later than 1340—a specially unfortunate blunder, as Pisa in the fifteenth century possessed no sculptors of any importance or ability.

Another very curious statue of the Virgin in stone, by a French sculptor of about 1280, is also labelled as being of the fifteenth century, in spite of the very exact date which is given by the detail of the canopy over the Virgin's head. The statue itself is especially noteworthy from its rich decorations in stamped gesso and jewel-like inlay of small bits of metal foil painted with transparent colours, each protected by a piece of transparent glass, examples of which are now very rare. Again, a quantity of archaic terra-cotta figures from Cyprus are dated as being later than 290 B.C., and some vases of the sixth or fifth century B.C. are labelled c. 200 B.C.

A fine Florentine terra-cotta statue of St. Mary Magdalene kneeling is called a figure of the Virgin, in spite of the fact that a complete group of the Pietà, the subject to which this statue belonged, is exhibited in another case close by, with a very similar statue of the Magdalene, who, in the fifteenth century, was represented in a manner quite unlike that in which figures of the Virgin were treated.

The titles under the fine series of water-colour drawings of Italian buildings, exposed in hinged cases, exhibit in some cases the most startling ignorance. One, for example, is said to represent "the Certosa of Chiaravalle of the fifteenth century"—which, by the way, seems to be a favourite date with the South Kensington antiquaries. This magnificent church is not a "certosa" at all, but a Cistercian abbey, as its name indicates, Chiaravalle being a translation of the name of the mother abbey of Clairvaux; and, so far from its being of the fifteenth century, it is one of the noblest examples in Italy of twelfth-century architecture—almost, as the drawing shows, English-Norman in style, with semi-circular arches on massive round piers. Even the central tower, with its internal dome, one of the most remarkable in design ever built, was completed some years before the middle of the fourteenth century.

Whole pages would not suffice to give a list of the erroneous statements on the South Kensington labels, and it is very clear that a real reform in this direction is urgently needed. The

Museum itself is so rich in fine examples of almost every class of art, on which large sums have been expended, that it seems absurd to ruin the historical value of the collected works of art by ignorance or carelessness in describing them. If the officials of the Museum itself are not equal to the task, assistance from without, such as that of Mr. Alan Cole, should be called in, not only for the very necessary work of rewriting many of the labels, but also for the equally important process of rearrangement according to some definite and sensible system.

#### THE HISTORIC FAMILIES OF SCOTLAND.\*

ON the appearance of the recent work of the Duke of Argyll, a Radical with the usual accuracy and taste of some of his class, observed that His Grace was about the only Scotch peer who had done anything historical or worth remembrance. It would be strictly correct on the contrary to affirm that no event—political, social, or religious—has taken place in Scotland for the last seven or eight centuries in which Scotch noblemen have not taken a leading part. Mr. James Taylor has selected some fifty families, the representatives of which have figured conspicuously in Border raids, rebellions, civil wars, ecclesiastical discussions, Councils, Cabinets, and the government of Dependencies, from the days of Wallace down to those of Harry Dundas. It is essential for the discharge of such a task that the author should have had access to printed records and to the manuscripts and muniment rooms of heads of old Houses; that he should have a genuine love for old ballads and antiquarian scraps; that he should understand the national character; and that he should have Walter Scott at his fingers' ends. We cannot doubt that Mr. Taylor possesses these qualifications, and that he is accurate in his facts and impartial in his judgment. It is not easy to say to which party he belongs. James I. and William III. each come in for censure, and while he evidently believes that worth, like wealth, may be inherited, he never disguises or palliates, *more Hispanico*, atrocities, fire-raising, abductions, reprisals, and the other incidents of a rude and uncivilized age. Lord Macaulay may have unfairly darkened some individual characters, and have partially whitewashed others, but he was an admirable judge of historical proportion and perspective. It would be a violation of all dramatic propriety, Macaulay tells us, to portray a Roman of the age of Camillus or Curius as superior to national antipathies, as mourning over the devastation and slaughter by which empire and triumphs were to be won, as looking on human suffering with the sympathy of Howard, or as treating conquered enemies with the delicacy of the Black Prince. Mr. Taylor shows us the Douglasses and the Campbells, the Ramsays and the Gordons, as they could not help being in the reigns of weak and misguided kings. A swordman like James V. was comparatively rare. Even the best and noblest of the Scotch barons were often guilty of savage retaliations. The well-known story of the Douglas Larder, which Mr. Taylor is charitable enough to think may have been exaggerated by tradition, is linked imperishably with the name of the "good Lord James," the faithful follower of the Bruce. Two members of the family of Home or Wedderburn, when the Regent Albany had escaped to France, thought nothing of coolly murdering a French knight, the Sieur de la Bastie, whom Albany had made Warden of the Marches, and nailing his head to the market-cross of Dunse. One of the Maxwells, who held the Wardenship of the Western Marches, caused a poor tasker to be tortured because he refused to give evidence in a certain suit. And in the case of the more savage leaders of society, whether they lived in the remote Highlands or in the Southern counties, the scene of perpetual conflicts with the English, there is positively no limit to the accounts of pitched battles, hereditary feuds, wrongful imprisonments, deaths by starvation, and raids in which villages and hamlets were levelled to the ground and numbers of the inhabitants drowned or hanged. Occasionally a treacherous act of retaliation was long remembered to the disgrace of its perpetrators. Of such a nature was the burning of the castle of Frendraught, belonging to the Crichtons, and the death in the fire of Lord Aboyne, of the Laird of Rothiemay, of English Will and Colonel Wat, and of two others. The evidence collated by Mr. Taylor would seem to show that the fire may have been as accidental as was the visit of the sufferers to the castle. But this was not the opinion of the Gordon family of the day, nor that of the Privy Council, nor that of certain Special Commissioners, nor that of contemporary chroniclers and makers of ballads. Stanzas from a ballad commemorating the horror in which the Crichtons were long held are still sung in Buchan and Strathbogie. In truth, Highlanders and Lowlanders could generally draw a fair distinction between catching your opponent in the field at a disadvantage and deliberately compassing his death by treachery and deceit. The betrayals of Wallace and of Argyll, the crimes of Fraser of the '15 and the '45, the cowardice of Murray of Broughton, have all been held up to social execration. It was all very well and in keeping with the time for a chieftain to harry his rival's villages, to carry off his cattle, to seize his lands, and to set fire to his stronghold. Border history is made up for centuries of these

\* *The Great Historic Families of Scotland*. By James Taylor, M.A., D.D., F.S.A. 2 vols. London: Virtue & Co. (Limited). 1887.

incidents. But when a Douglas who had been removed from the office of Sheriff of Teviotdale pounced upon his successor, Sir Alexander Ramsay, while he was holding his court at Hawick, carried him off to the Hermitage in Liddesdale, and cast him into a dungeon, where he died of hunger, after prolonging his life for more than a fortnight by the grains of corn that fell through the crevices, this deed excited general indignation, as we know from Fordoun and Wyntoun. Saxon, Celt, Norman, or Dane were often guilty of ferocious deeds which could scarcely be surpassed by a pitiless Maratha raider or a despotic Mahomedan Nawab. But cool, calculating, Oriental treachery has been almost always condemned by chieftain and henchman, people and priest. A sort of legal or political justification can be pleaded for some violations of law. When Kinmont Willie was rescued from the Castle of Carlisle by the bold Buccleuch of the day, his rescuer pleaded, in answer to the furious remonstrances of Queen Elizabeth, that the said Willie had been unfairly captured in Scotland in warlike manner and in violation of truce and "Border law." It is quite certain that this was backed by the whole Scotch nation—clergy, people, nobles, and King—and that the daughter of Henry VIII. had to content herself with the surrender of the leader on parole. Mr. Taylor gives us the spirited reply of Buccleuch to Her Grace, who asked him how he dared to storm her castle. Why, in his excellent account of the Campbells, does he omit the more celebrated answer of the second Duke of Argyll to Queen Caroline, the wife of George II., when she said that, sooner than submit to the outrage of the Porteous mob, she would make Scotland a hunting-ground?

In simple truth, all through Scotch as well as English history no great social revolution, no political crisis, no historical event of lasting importance, has ever taken place without the guidance of some member of these fifty families to whom the author has devoted so much trouble and time. Whether such leaders were always on the popular side, whether in resisting the authority of the Sovereign they did not try and establish a worse supremacy of their own, whether they did not familiarize the community with bloodshed, whether, in short, they ought not to have introduced the "Reign of Law" at an earlier period, are questions for fair argument and discussion. The climate, the country, the keen air, the swollen rivers, the wild moors, hills, and morasses may have had their share in prolonging a state of things incompatible with "progress." Feudalism under such influences was likely to live long. But, as a contrast to a savage like the Wolf of Badenoch or a dissolute prelate like Patrick Hepburn, Bishop of Moray and Secretary of State in the sixteenth century, many statesmen were found to promote Reformation in Church and in State and to die as patriots on the scaffold or in many battlefields. Some of the best blood in Scotland was shed at Flodden. It may please Liberationists to be told that when an Archbishop of York with an ill-assorted force of archers, yeomen, priests, monks and friars, tried to make head against Douglas and Randolph in the time of Edward II. he was signally defeated. One of the Keiths early in the fifteenth century, in spite of the opposition of the Bishop of St. Andrews, obtained permission from Pope Benedict XIII. to build a church before he built a castle on an impregnable rock. The Cameronian Regiment, lately known as the 26th, owes its origin to the efforts of the eldest son of James, second Marquess of Douglas, who, being a stout Presbyterian, raised a body of infantry out of a stern class of Covenanters, some of whom had fought at Bothwell Brigg. When Charles I. and Archbishop Laud rashly attempted to force Episcopacy and a Church Service on a reluctant people, it was an Earl of Keith who cast in his lot with the popular party, and who was apparently of such sturdy stuff that he incurred the anger of the Royalists and the displeasure of Cromwell. To the staunch support given by generations of Campbells to Scottish Presbyterianism and independence against Popery and despotism, and to the forfeits which they paid in their estates and lives, it is only necessary to allude. Hardly any historical painting in conception and execution is more worth remembrance than the "Last Sleep of Argyll"; and any history of Scotland before or after the Union must be largely made up of the sayings and doings of Maitlands, Grahams, Campbells, Scotts, Ramsays, Erskines, and Gordons, in Council and in Cabinet, in Parliament and in camp.

Readers who may be fortunate enough to obtain a copy of this rare work can march leisurely with Mr. Taylor along the high-ways of history. More dear to the critic and the student of manners are the bypaths, the glimpses of social life, the long journeys, the modes in which the rent was paid, retainers were fed, and the larder was replenished. Admirers of Dugald Dalgetty will hardly need to be told that the College at Aberdeen, where he picked up his correct Latin, was founded by Keith, fifth Earl Marischal, who knew history, theology, and Hebrew, and who had studied at French Universities and at Geneva under Theodore Beza. The charter of the College is dated April 1593, and it provides for a Principal, three Professors, six Bursars, and a curriculum of Greek, Hebrew, geography, history, and other branches. It was an old lady of another branch of this family who furnished Scott with divers anecdotes embodied in his novels, and who detected the authorship of *Waverley* with the remark that she knew her "ain groats among other folks' kail." The practice of adoption, though unknown in the Lowlands, was quite common in the Highlands; and so was that of "fosterage." The foster child, on condition of kind and loving treatment at the hands of his foster-mother, was, on arriving at man's estate, bound to be a constant friend to the family and to defend its members in all lawful actions and quarrels. An arrangement of this sort

perpetuated friendships between various clans and houses and was obviously necessary in rude times when the law was weak. It is characteristic of feudalism that in one of these contracts between a Campbell of Glenorchy and a Campbell of Duntrane, an express reservation is made in favour of the authority of the head of the House, the Earl of Argyll.

Some agricultural statistics are noteworthy. Mr. Taylor is careful to give the acreage and the rent-roll of all the present representatives of his great families, as well as the partition, sale, or devolution of estates caused by attainder, improvidence, marriages, and deaths. They are too numerous to quote. But we may mention that, besides the peerages enjoyed by the descendants of Mac Calian More—so the author spells it—there are no fewer than twenty-eight Campbells in Scotland, each possessing 5,000 acres and upwards; and the total extent of their estates is 538,891 acres. As a Persian Prince said of Calcutta that it was a splendid city for a raid, a philanthropic Radical might think that here was a fine field for predatory legislation. To such politicians it is useless to urge that seventy years ago the fourth Duke of Buccleuch, in addition to his regular establishment, employed nine hundred and forty-seven labourers in the spring of the year when there was a want of employment. The first Earl of Aberdeen was Chancellor of Scotland; and the Earl who was Premier at the commencement of the Crimean War, planted about fourteen millions of trees on his estate of Haddo, on which when he came into possession there were only a few limes and firs. In the same line the late Marquess of Tweeddale was one of the first to try experiments in deep ploughing and tile-draining, and he was the inventor of a tile-making machine and of the "Tweeddale Plough." That rents were paid mostly in kind, and that little hard cash passed from tenant to landlord, will surprise no one who has studied the agriculture of either East or West. In the Breadalbane establishment in 1590 the cheer was excellent and abundant; salmon, trout, and herrings, capons, geese, tame and wild, blackcock, partridges, venison, rabbits, and "birsell" fowls. All this was washed down with three kinds of ale, fitted for the different grades of the household, and claret and white wine. At the burial of the fourth Earl of Montrose, who in his lifetime had been much given to archery, golf, and tobacco, there was an enormous consumption of meat and game for the entertainment of kinsmen, which lasted eight weeks. There was venison, mutton, and beef; one puncheon of claret and another of white wine; and there is really no tautology in the list of game, which comprised, beside wildfowl, "Capercaillies, Black Cokes, and Ethe hens (grey hens), Tarnagains (Ptarmigan), Muir Fowls (grouse?), Wodcocks, Peitrichs"—partridges are so pronounced in many districts to this very day—"Plewvers, and Birsell" fowls. No wonder that a rental of three years was sometimes expended at one burial. The weekly consumption in the Fraser household was not small; seven bolls of malt, seven of meal, and one of flour. Seventy beeves were consumed in the year, or not quite one and a half per week, and besides there were venison, fish, poultry, lamb, veal, and all sorts of feathered game. The rent-roll of the Head of the Gordons at the end of the sixteenth century consisted of thousands of bolls of meal, sheep and lambs by hundreds, poultry innumerable, nearly six thousand eggs, and butter, cheese, tallow candles, peats, and oats in proportion. There were money payments amounting to 3,819 pounds (punds Scotch?), and some 636 of "teind silver." In a later age Captain Knockunder could fairly boast that the marriage feast of Reuben Butler and Jeanie Deans did not cost his Duke a plack out of his sporran. The curious items of the Breadalbane plenishing, the arras, the curtains, serviettes and towels, and napery of all sorts, are enumerated in connexion with the weapons most necessary to keep all this gear together; cut-throat guns, brazen pieces, hagbuts, pistollettes, Jedburgh staves, and Lochaber axes, and other instruments more ominous still; huge iron fetters for men's feet and hands, long chains and shackles, and "ane heading axe."

Mr. Taylor's mistakes seem to us few and trivial, though there are some omissions. Lord Hardinge, we must remind him, was not recalled from India. It was his predecessor, Lord Ellenborough. A very fair account is given of the splendid Indian administration of the Marquess of Dalhousie, and there are other important notices of divers statesmen and warriors who have been conspicuous for fighting battles and forming Ministries in the age of our fathers and our own. But why did Mr. Taylor, in dedicating his work to the present Marquess of Tweeddale, omit to note that he was a member of the Bengal Civil Service? Somehow he seems to ignore the fact that divers cadets of the Scotch aristocracy, titled and untitled, in the army and the Civil Service, have had a large share in the building of our Indian Empire. India, in fact, seems to be outside Mr. Taylor's researches altogether. When he enumerates the distinguished services of the ninth Earl of Dalhousie in the Peninsula, Egypt, and America, he seems to have quite forgotten that this general officer, the father of the great Proconsul, was Commander-in-Chief in the East Indies nearly sixty years ago.

#### PULMONARY CONSUMPTION.\*

FEW, if any, private libraries possess shelf-room sufficient for all that has been written in English alone upon the subject of consumption, and it would be well-nigh impossible for the most

\* *Pulmonary Consumption*. By C. J. B. Williams and C. T. Williams. Second edition. London: Longmans & Co. 1887.



studious individual reading eight or ten hours a day, to wade through the entire literature, English and foreign, in a working lifetime. No doubt, moreover, much of this is necessarily rubbish or mere repetition of what has been written before; so that the man who desires to learn something of consumption is bound to suffer much disappointment and loss of time in his studies, and is apt unwittingly to pass by the comparatively few works of genuine merit and value. But in an age of open and keen competition it is impossible to suggest a remedy for this superabundance.

The authors of the book before us possess the inestimable initial qualification, which nine-tenths of those who launch their views on the world lack, of a long and concentrated clinical experience of the subject of their work. Father and son have devoted their lives to it, and have brought knowledge both wide and deep to bear upon it, so that the matured result of their labours is bound to engage our earnest and respectful attention. The first edition, published sixteen years ago by Dr. C. J. B. Williams, was a work of great merit, and expressed most ably the scientific views of that day; but the flood of light that was thrown upon the subject by the subsequent discoveries of Koch rendered a readjustment of those views in a new edition absolutely necessary. This task has been most admirably carried out in the work before us, which is arranged upon an intelligent plan, and everywhere bears evidence of thorough workmanship. The chapters on the morbid anatomy and histology of consumption are clear and concise, as are also in general those upon the *Bacillus Tuberculosis*.

There is, however, some evidence that Dr. Williams's own bacteriological experience has been confined to this particular pathogenic agent; for he has no hesitation in quoting Koch's dictum that the *Bacillus Tuberculosis* is the one found in Lupus. Kaposi, *per contra*, whose clinical experience in Dermatology is far superior to Koch's, has pointed out that true tuberculosis of the skin differs widely from lupus, and that in a given time he had observed but fifteen cases of this rare disease to one thousand of lupus. In the latest edition of Lennox Browne's work on diseases of the throat, the clinical features of tuberculosis and lupus in that region are shown to be so widely different that it is impossible to believe the diseases to be the same.

The author is judiciously undecided in his opinion as to the part played by ptomaines in the causation of consumption, for that question is still an open one, and we are bound to say that the concluding sentence of Chapter V. is more diplomatic than lucid.

Alluding to *Micrococcus Tetragenus*, he says:—

What part this organism plays in phthisis is at present unknown, but its absence from the early lesions (of grey and milky tubercle) render it improbable that it is as important as tubercle bacillus.

The remarks upon the influence of age, sex, and heredity in predisposing to consumption, based upon ample statistical tables, are of the deepest interest and value, and afford sound proof that these problems have been investigated from every possible point of view. The author appears to attach somewhat less weight than he might do to the direct result of mental depression in predisposing to consumption, but where many diverse factors unite to produce this predisposition, it is impossible to ascribe an exact amount of influence to each.

And we think that the author is logically at fault in thus attributing exclusively to a damp soil the large proportion of deaths from consumption and scrofula which occurred in the family of the Essex rector which he quotes. We have known an even larger proportionate destruction occur in a family living on an elevated, dry, sandstone subsoil. Yet this chapter is full of interest and instruction; and, indeed, the uppermost sentiment on reading this and the succeeding chapters on physical signs, diagnosis, sources of error, &c., is one of regret that one's own early acquired knowledge had not been based upon teaching so precise and scientific.

In regard to treatment, after a most unprejudiced review of almost every dietetic, climatic, and medicinal agent that can be brought to bear in the many forms and phases of consumption, the author administers a well-deserved rebuke to those ignorant and reckless persons who proclaim their ability to stamp out the bacilli *in situ* by means of inhalations. He says:—

If we were to trust some of the numerous writers on the antiseptic treatment of phthisis, the process is a very simple one, and consists in adding a few drops of carbolic acid, eucalyptol or thymol, to an oral or oro-nasal respirator, which the patient is directed to wear for several hours a day. It is claimed for this practice that the cough is reduced in intensity, &c. . . . but where are the experiments to show that this method of treatment lessens the numbers of tubercle bacilli, or interferes materially with the retrograde processes which they set up in the lungs?

Unquestionably such evidence is non-existent, and to those who know the extreme tenacity of life possessed by these bacilli and even more by their spores, and the strength of poison or high temperature necessary to destroy them, such pottering practice can only provoke a smile. No bacillicide is yet known which, if administered in any form in amount sufficient to clear the lungs of all germs, would not have killed the patient long before the desired result had been achieved. We heartily commend this work to all such enthusiasts, and hope that an earnest perusal of it may show them that there is no royal road to successful treatment, and how wide must be a man's knowledge and experience before he has any moral right to assume the care of consumptive cases. We also commend the work as a brilliant

refutation of the views of those who decry the utility and good influence upon scientific knowledge of the London special hospitals. The Brompton Hospital has certainly reason to be proud of the solid scientific achievement to which it has contributed so largely.

#### CLASSICAL SCHOOL BOOKS.\*

THERE was no doubt room for an English edition of Ovid's *Letters from Pontus*, but Mr. Keene has not been very successful in his attempt to fill it. Apart from some shortcomings in execution, the work is spoilt by uncertainty of purpose. Judging from the introduction, with its debate on that wearisome and insoluble question the cause of Ovid's banishment, and its account—at second-hand, it is true—of the MSS., one would suppose that the edition was intended for readers tolerably far advanced in knowledge of Latin, a supposition borne out by the fact that the notes are placed at the foot of the page. On the other hand, a first glance at the notes suggests that they have been written for the benefit of beginners, not merely in Ovid, but in Latin. On almost every page we find translations of lines which offer no difficulty whatever, references to the most familiar legends are explained, and the reader's attention is drawn to such elementary points as the distinction between *æra* and *œra*, *nôta* and *nota*, *pôpulus* and *pôpulus*, and so forth. Take, for example, p. 33, Mr. Keene translates such phrases as "*mala causa*," "*nec vacat querere*," "*finitimo vix loca nota Getæ*," together with some perfectly straightforward lines and sentences; he tells us that *Taurica terra* is "the Tauric Chersonese, now the Crimea," and relates the rescue of Iphigenia by Orestes and Pylades. Meantime the only line in the page likely to give pause to a beginner, l. 74, is left without explanation. On the next page the more advanced scholar has his turn with a good note on certain uses of the pronoun *iste*, and a few lines further on we come to a long discussion of various readings occurring in il. 101, closely followed by a note informing the reader that *stricto ense* means "with drawn sword." Another weak point in Mr. Keene's work is, that he does not pay enough attention to points of Ovidian grammar and usage, such, for instance, as the poet's common use of *nec* for *ne*, with others which should be pointed out to young scholars. In a note, for example, on the adjective *Sarmatis* (il. 114), Mr. Keene merely writes that "this form is used several times by Ovid in the *Tristia*." Of course this form is only one example of Ovid's common practice of making feminine adjectives after the Greek model, in *-is, -idis*, instead of using the feminine forms of adjectives in *-icus*. We have noticed here and there a few slips and misconceptions. In il. 95 *comperit* is translated as a present instead of a perfect tense, which not merely spoils the sense, but involves an incorrect sequence of tenses. In i. 11, Mr. Keene surely misunderstands his author. Ovid begs his friend Brutus to give his book a place on his shelves, and adds:—

Queris ubi hos possis nullo componere læso?  
Qua steterant Artes, pars vacat illa tibi.

Mr. Keene translates *nullo læso* "without giving offence to any one." This rendering is made impossible by the following line; if it was an offence to have a work of Ovid's in one's library, the offence would not be the less because the new work replaced an old one by the same author. The words obviously mean "without turning out some other volume"; and then the poet relates that there is a vacant space where his *Ars Amatoria* once stood. However, Mr. Keene's notes are, for the most part, correct enough, and we can only regret that his evident industry and careful study of the work of other commentators have not enabled him to produce a more satisfactory edition.

Mr. Lindsay's edition of the *Captivi* is a far more workmanlike affair. It is intended for the use of the higher forms of public schools, and the editor has kept the needs of schoolboys well

\* *P. Ovidii Nasonis Epistolarum ex Ponto liber I.* With Introduction and Notes by Charles Haines Keene, M.A., Dublin. London: George Bell & Sons.

*T. Marci Plantii Captivi.* With Introduction and Notes by W. M. Lindsay, M.A., Fellow of Jesus College. Oxford: Clarendon Press.

*M. Tullii Cicerois Cato Major sive De Senectute.* Edited by E. W. Howson, M.A., Assistant-Master at Harrow School. London: Rivingtons.

*The Catiline of Sallust, with Notes, for Use in the Middle Forms of Schools.* Edited by B. D. Turner, M.A., late Fellow of Jesus College, Cambridge, Assistant-Master at Marlborough College. London: Rivingtons.

*Extracts from Cæsar translated into English for Re-translation.* By R. E. Macnaghten, B.A., Assistant-Master at Harrow School, and H. V. Macnaghten, B.A., Assistant-Master at Eton College. London: Rivingtons.

*Easy Latin Passages for Unseen Translation.* Compiled by A. M. M. Stedman, M.A., Wadham College, Oxford. London: George Bell & Sons.

*Macmillan's Latin Course.* First Year. By A. M. Cook, M.A., Assistant-Master in St. Paul's School. London: Macmillan & Co.

*First Latin Lessons.* By A. M. M. Stedman, M.A., Wadham College, Oxford. London: George Bell & Sons.

*Miscellaneous Latin Exercises.* By A. M. M. Stedman, M.A., Wadham College, Oxford. London: George Bell & Sons.

*Triperita.* Third Series. A Course of Easy Latin Exercises for Preparatory Schools. By Frederic T. Holden, M.A. London: Rivingtons.

*An Elementary Syntax of the Latin Cases.* Compiled by B. D. Turner, M.A., Fellow of Jesus College, Cambridge, and Assistant-Master at Marlborough College. London: Rivingtons.

before him. There is a good, and, what is less usual, a short, introduction dealing with the plot of the play, Plautine syntax and prosody, and the way in which Roman comedy was put on the stage. With the text are given stage directions, and everything is done to impress upon readers the dramatic force of each scene and incident, and to make them feel that they have before them an amusing comedy, not a mere collection of examples of grammatical rules. Schoolboys do not usually read Plautus until they are tolerably high up, and therefore Mr. Lindsay has done wisely to pass over, in his notes, points of ordinary Latin construction, and to point out in what respects Plautine grammar differs from that of Cicero and the Augustan age. Thus we find at l. 669 a good note on the use of the indicative mood in indirect questions, and such points as futures in *-bo* of the fourth conjugation, questions of orthography and etymology, unfamiliar scansion, and ante-classical quantities are briefly yet sufficiently dealt with. If Mr. Lindsay has a fault as an editor for schoolboys, it is that he here and there translates needlessly. He is especially fond of trying his hand upon the comic speeches of the parasite Ergasilus, but his translations are often vigorous and likely to help boys to enter into the spirit of the comedy, while they are for the most part too free to enable them to dispense safely with the help of grammar and dictionary. There is, perhaps, more etymology in the notes than some teachers may like, but in Plautus etymological questions force themselves a good deal upon the reader's notice, and Mr. Lindsay is always scholarly in his treatment of them. There were already more reasons than one for introducing boys to Plautus by means of the *Captivi*, and the excellence of Mr. Lindsay's edition adds yet another.

If a form of thirty boys were set to work upon the *De Senectute*, it would, we fancy, be quite possible that no two of them would possess copies of the same edition. Mr. Howson's Commentary is in one respect emphatically the best of the half-dozen or so which we have seen within the last few months. It is decidedly the shortest. There is no reason why boys should have long notes on this dialogue. The Latin is not difficult, the thought is not profound—indeed, irreverent persons have been heard to call it superficial. Elaborate notes only intensify the loathing with which nineteen schoolboys out of twenty regard Cicero and all his works. Appreciation of literary form is a late product of education, and the best way to use the *De Senectute* in teaching Latin is to make sixth-form boys and undergraduates read, translate, and retranslate it as a model of style. However, if small boys are to hammer out of it such meaning as they can gather, Mr. Howson's notes are of the right sort. They are, also, so far as we have tested them, accurate, but for the astounding statement (p. 72) that "in Terence's play, *The Brothers*, Micio represents *duritas*, or ill-temper; Demea, *comitas*, or indulgence."

Mr. Turner's edition of the *Catiline* is admirably suited to the needs of those who are reading Sallust to learn Latin in general, not to make a special study of the author himself. The introduction and notes together make the history of the period quite clear; due attention is given to grammar; parallel passages of Latin are always translated, as they should be if schoolboys are to make any use of them; and the illustrations from English literature which are here and there happily introduced are taken from books which boys are likely to have read.

Messrs. Macnaghten's pretty little book contains literal—sometimes painfully literal—translations of about forty very short passages of Cæsar. They are intended to be used by boys as fair copies before they put their own translations back into Latin. For this purpose the book may be useful, though we think that even for boys in lower forms rather more freedom might be permitted in a fair copy than the translators have allowed themselves. The first sentence of § 28, for instance, is hideous.

Mr. Stedman's *Latin Passages* range from single sentences to easy selections from Cæsar, Cicero, Horace, and Virgil. The compilation may be useful to masters of preparatory and of the lower forms of public schools; but it does not seem to us quite so good as Mr. Jerram's *Reddenda Minora*, while the purpose and plan are so similar that the comparison is inevitable.

Of the making of first, second, third Latin books it is natural that there should be no end. Almost any schoolmaster of intelligence and experience in dealing with beginners can write a book which will undoubtedly be useful to himself and those under him, while, even if not widely adopted as a text-book, it may be valuable in suggesting new ideas and hints on method to others. Mr. Cook's *Latin Course* has reached a second edition. Something has been added, but nothing subtracted, and the opinion which we expressed in noticing the first edition is unchanged.

Mr. Stedman, to judge by a list of his works done or contemplated, has taken all elementary knowledge for his province. His *First Latin Lessons* are really good; they are very easy, progress from one point to another is very gradual, and, except that the inflexion of the verb does not come quite early enough, while the pronouns come too soon, the order of subjects is sensible. There are plenty of exercises, and the vocabulary consists of words likely to be useful afterwards. But the lessons themselves are couched too much in the tone of the master haranguing his class, and the book is likely to be of more use to its compiler than to any one else.

Still more is this true of the same author's *Miscellaneous Latin Exercises*. These are things which no one can make well for another, so much depends on the lines of a man's teaching, the books which boys are reading at the time, and so on. Mr. Stedman's Exercises, however, illustrate well enough the ordinary rules of Latin syntax and a good many useful idioms.

Mr. Holden's book of Latin exercises, like those which he has already published, goes thrice over the same ground in syntax, so that those boys who are not moved up at the end of a term may have their knowledge of grammar strengthened by fresh examples of familiar rules. The present volume contains examples of the syntax of interrogatives, of some of the cases, of the gerundive, and of final and consecutive clauses. The book consists entirely of exercises, rules and their explanation being wisely left to the teacher. We do not like Mr. Holden's practice of placing the Latin words opposite the English. No doubt the object is to avoid cultivating the memory—a faculty which seems to be at present out of fashion among authorities on education. Otherwise Mr. Holden's book is well planned, and we are glad to notice that recapitulatory exercises are plentiful.

Whether it was worth while to collect the rules for the syntax of the Latin cases in a little book by themselves need not be discussed. Mr. Turner's rules are clearly expressed and illustrated by well-chosen examples. In translating his examples Mr. Turner is not always happy. *Ventus* in Horace's familiar line (p. 10) surely means "changeable," "fickle," not "inconsistent"; and in the sentence "*Talento inanicum mihi emi, amicum vendidi*," why should the verbs be rendered "acquired" and "disposed of," instead of "bought" and "sold"?

#### A SHORT HISTORY OF ENGLAND.\*

PROFESSOR RANSOME'S attempt to write a History of England within the narrow space of four hundred and fifty pages is, in many respects, worthy of considerable praise. His work is, on the whole, careful and accurate, and, though here and there his facts are crowded somewhat thickly together, he has generally exercised a wise discretion in his choice of matter. The maps, plans, and tables of dates and genealogies with which his volume is abundantly furnished are well designed and helpful. He speaks in his preface of his experience as a "practical teacher," and it has certainly been of some benefit to him in preparing this book; for, as a rule, he expresses his meaning clearly, in simple though not childish language, and even constitutional points of some difficulty are stated so plainly that any boy of ordinary intelligence in one of the middle or upper forms of a public school will be able to understand them without further explanation. He shows some evidences of independent thought, and of an acquaintance with original authorities, and his estimates of men, of political events, and of constitutional changes are for the most part sound, and occasionally suggestive. Of course it is possible to find flaws. He takes no notice of the remarkable ability of Richard I., who was not by any means a mere "feudal knight." And, to go on to later times, he leads his readers to infer that the amendment moved in the Lords to the Address on the conclusion of the Peace of Utrecht was only rejected by the votes of the "twelve new peers." The chief faults in his book, however, are that it is dull and badly written. He is deficient in narrative power, and his sentences are weak and clumsy. It is scarcely probable that any boy or girl will find pleasure in reading a work so lacking in life and energy, or will be led on by it to pursue the study of English history.

#### ELOCUTION.†

THE authors of this treatise declare that the art of elocution is "becoming daily more and more requisite and popular," and go on to remind readers that in the time of Jephthah 42,000 Ephraimites were killed on the brink of Jordan "because they could not 'frame to pronounce' with Gileadite accuracy the simple pass-word 'Shibboleth.'" If the illustration had any sort of connexion with the assertion, it would certainly appear that elocution was more requisite to these Ephraimites than it is likely to be to the modern student. We fail to see for what reason the art can be becoming daily more and more requisite, we doubt its increasing popularity, and we entertain a very strong impression that no progress in elocution can be derived from the study of books. The present volume is apparently intended for the benefit of the public reciter, the foundation of whose capacity must invariably be in the first place poetical appreciation, which may be to some extent advanced by education, but cannot be taught; in the second place, dramatic power, which can scarcely be acquired, though it may be developed, if it be inherent; and, in the third place, a sense of humour, which is a gift of nature. If the reciter has thoroughly grasped his poet's meaning—an exceedingly rare occurrence—he will, if possessed of the second and third requirements, according to the nature of the recitation to be given, find a way of conveying the significance of the work to his audience, even though he be completely ignorant of the precise situation of his larynx, of the fact that the epiglottis is a valve, or that the vocal cords are merely white bands below the rim of the upper outlet of the larynx, and so forth. These anatomical details occupy three of the thirty pages which are devoted to the main subject of the book; and though,

\* *A Short History of England from the Earliest Times to the Present Day*. By Cyril Ransome, M.A., Professor of Modern Literature and History in the Yorkshire College, Leeds. With Maps and Plans. London: Rivingtons. 1887.

† *Elocution*. By T. R. Walter Pearson, M.A., and F. W. Waithman. London: Walter Scott. 1887.



considering what the rest of it is like we are not prepared to say that the space might have been better employed, they are unnecessary. We cannot imagine a more melancholy business than listening to a conscientious student of this treatise diligently striving to follow the instructions here given. Thus he would be informed that "the stops are (1) the comma, at which mentally count one; (2) the semicolon, at which mentally count two," and so on. The pauses are of course stated correctly enough as to their proportions, but we should caution the reader or reciter against mentally counting at all, advising him to devote all his mind to the interpretation of his author without arithmetical complication. Our imaginary student would not be assisted by the admonition that "satire, sarcasm, and irony take an eccentric emphasis of their own according as the assertion is made in vituperation, railery, ambiguity, &c." The vagueness of the "&c."—not to speak of grammatical confusion, for what does &c. imply in this connexion?—is balanced by the vagueness of the general rule; but perhaps it is better to be vague than to lay down hard-and-fast regulations which are open to dispute, if not altogether untenable. We are told, for instance, that there are three pitches—the high, low, and middle pitch—and "all impulsive utterances and elevated feelings take the high pitch." If it were possible to formulate any general rule for this, we should decidedly have said that the expression of elevated feelings should "take" the low pitch, that noble sentiment should not be screamed out but spoken with dignity; and one can hardly be dignified at the top of the voice. It is on the subject of gesticulation, however, that the foolishness of Messrs. Pearson and Waithman's little book becomes most abject. "Whilst a sentence is in suspension the hand may be raised to a height somewhat above the shoulder, and at its completion may be brought down to the level of the breast, and sometimes drawn somewhat across it, and even lie upon it with the fingers in careless repose." Imagine the reciter going through all these "extensive motions" while he mentally counted his one and two and three and four as he tried to remember whether the stops were commas, semicolons, colons, or periods! But if these little regulations as to the movements of fingers are absurd when the endeavour is to convey the fervid thought of an inspired poet, how, with any approach to civility, can we describe the set rule that "Resolution requires an expression of deep thought, with thumb and first finger resting on lower lip; the head inclining towards the breast; eyes downcast; then a sudden lighting up of the countenance, a striking of the breast over the heart, or of the thigh"—why not the calf of the leg or the biceps muscle? unhappily a man cannot well pat himself on the back—and a sharp turn on both feet as if in eagerness to carry out the inner determination of the mind." Resolution does not—need it be said?—"require" this. Such gesticulations, if duly observed, might express resolution, and so might scores of actions and gestures of a totally different kind. "Obstinacy requires an almost motionless attitude; a slight rocking may be allowed; eyes fixed, yet catching at anything said of an abnormal kind, in a visible attempt of the body to subdue the will." Let our student suppose that he has to exhibit irresolution (with his hand somewhat above his shoulder, the careless fingers, and so on) followed by resolution and obstinacy. He would become an acrobat rather than an elocutionist if he followed Messrs. Pearson and Waithman's rules; and then let us suppose that a fit of jealousy overtook him. In representing jealousy, "hope, anger, melancholy, despair, revenge, &c., have all to be brought in, and must be very rapidly, if not momentarily, delineated." We do not know what "very rapidly if not momentarily" means, but that is what the book says. Each of the half-dozen emotions specified, however, taking no notice of "&c.," is a very elaborate piece of work, and according to Messrs. Pearson and Waithman's laws we do not think that the most expert Othello could indicate any of his passing fits of jealousy in less than from seven to seven and a half minutes. We were never so firmly persuaded of the fact that elocution cannot be taught as after reading this book, and the penance has furthermore convinced us that, if the art could be learnt, Messrs. Pearson and Waithman could not teach it. Sixteen "Selected Recitations" occupy half the volume. "Every effort has been made," the authors declare, "to give selections little known to the general body of amateurs." Three of the sixteen, however, are "To be, or not to be?" Hamlet's advice to the players, and the speech of Henry V. before Agincourt. If every effort had been made to give selections almost universally known to the general body of amateurs, which of these three would have been omitted? Two poems by Mr. Waithman—specially selected from the whole wealth of poetical treasures by English-speaking authors—may be new to, let us say, a little handful of readers, and so may a poem by Mr. Tirebuck. We have never before heard of Mr. Tirebuck—nor indeed were we acquainted with Mr. Waithman's poetry before we came across this volume—but it is our ignorance, of course, and we live and learn. Mr. Tirebuck's verses strike us as amongst the worst we have ever read (Mr. Waithman has, however, recited some of Mr. Tirebuck's poems, he tells us, with gratifying results). The rest of the little known treasures include Longfellow's "Haunted Houses," Poe's "Annabel Lee," Præd's "Belle of the Ball," Coleridge on "The Pains of Sleep," and three poems by Mark Twain. Our readers will judge for themselves the success which has attended the authors' efforts to go far afield for their selections.

## PHILOSOPHICAL LITERATURE.\*

THE first volume of *The Principles of Morals*, published last year, was mainly introductory and historical. Its title-page bore the names of Professor Fowler and the late Professor J. M. Wilson. In the present case the name of the latter is omitted, since, although he made some slight contributions, the mass of the work is Dr. Fowler's, and he alone can accept the responsibility. Although open to criticism on several details, this book has been so well written and arranged, and contains so much valuable criticism, that it is likely to become the standard work on ethics in our language for this generation. Beginning with the self-regarding feelings—for he objects, naturally enough, to the term "selfish"—the author goes on to discuss the sympathetic, resentful, and semi-social at considerable length. What must always be avoided, and what he tries to avoid, is the consideration of any of these feelings themselves or of their classes, as though they could ever be found in experience acting solely by themselves. It is quite possible, and sometimes may be useful, to consider them abstractly, to take them to pieces, and then examine them; but the fact remains that human action is produced by mixed motives, which only operate when together. Were this always insisted upon even more forcibly than it is in the work before us, there would be less contempt shown for moral philosophy as an "unpractical" science. As Professor Fowler points out, although rational self-love and self-respect may be classed among the self-regarding feelings, they indicate the presence of those which are sympathetic. From a higher point of view he might have shown that in the whole of his first class of feelings there is, when fully considered, not one that is purely individual. The argument used to prove that sympathy is "an ultimate fact of human nature" goes much further than he would take us; and, although it sounds like a paradox, self-respect might well be considered as the opposite of any feeling that was self-regarding. Sympathy itself, according to his theory, makes its appearance at the very outset of human history, while self-respect is a later development. Does not this seem to show that, in the feelings which he would have us look upon as purely individual, there is a universal element—not explicit, but imminent? That Dr. Fowler has not sufficiently noticed the difficulty here pointed out is shown by a curious variation of his terminology. In Part I. of the *Principles*, and on several occasions in Part II., he speaks of the reason as "controlling" and "guiding" the feelings, while he changes the word to "enlightening" at one important place in his book. The former usage presents the reason as acting from the outside; the latter suggests a better explanation and avoids the dualism which we find at its extreme point in Kant. One of the most interesting chapters in the book is that on the "Resentful Feelings." Some parts of it might well be studied by the "moral" and fatherly politicians of the present day. "The law," according to it, "can only properly interfere to prevent harm and punish the vicious; it is transcending its functions when it attempts to promote good and to reward the virtuous." In this reference there are some very sensible remarks on the limits to legislation as well as upon the educative influence of the legal sanction. The latter is quite distinct from the "social sanction," on which the author lays a great deal of stress. Unfortunately, it is one of those things whose precise meaning it is impossible to state with exactness. It varies with different times, nations, classes, and professions; and its decisions—however short-sighted or erroneous—are hard to reverse. However valuable its influence may be on the whole, there are many cases (like some cited here) in which it acts mischievously. It serves its best purpose by acting as a check to the insolence of self-assertion, but it may sometimes hinder real progress by its worship of dead divinities. There is a large quantity of valuable matter in the chapter on "The Moral Faculty"—especially in the pages which refer to the conscience. After pointing out that we may say that conscience acts instantaneously or immediately only if we confine

\* *The Principles of Morals*. Part II. Being the body of the work. By Thomas Fowler, D.D., President of Corpus Christi College, Wykeham Professor of Logic in the University of Oxford, &c. Oxford: Clarendon Press. 1887.

*Realistic Philosophy defended in a Philosophic Series*. By James McCosh, D.D., LL.D., Litt.D., President of Princeton College. 2 vols. London: Macmillan & Co. 1887.

*Elements of Physiological Psychology*. By George T. Ladd, Professor of Philosophy in Yale University. London: Longmans, Green, & Co. 1887.

*Lotze's Outlines of Logic and Encyclopædia of Philosophy*. Translated and edited by George T. Ladd, Professor of Philosophy in Yale College. London: Trübner & Co. Boston: Ginn & Co. 1887.

*Scottish Metaphysics Reconstructed in accordance with the Principles of Physical Science*. By the Author of "Free Notes on Herbert Spencer's First Principles." London and Edinburgh: Blackwood & Sons. 1887.

*Vocabulary of Philosophy—Psychological, Ethical, Metaphysical; with Quotations and References*. By William Fleming, D.D., formerly Professor of Moral Philosophy in the University of Glasgow. Fourth edition. Revised and largely reconstructed by Henry Calderwood, LL.D., Professor of Moral Philosophy in the University of Edinburgh. London: Griffin & Co. 1887.

*A Dictionary of Philosophy in the Words of Philosophers*. Edited, with an Introduction, by J. Radford Thomson, M.A., Professor of Philosophy in New College, London, &c. London: Dickinson. 1887.

*The Natural History of Thought in its Practical Aspect*. By George Wall, F.L.S., F.R.A.S. London: Trübner & Co. 1887.

*Questions on Psychology, Metaphysics, and Ethics*. Collected and arranged by F. Ryland, M.A., late Scholar of St. John's College, Cambridge. London: Swan Sonnenschein & Co. 1887.

ourselves to the feeling succeeding the final act of judgment, Dr. Fowler proceeds:—

Again, the Conscience or Moral Sense, or Moral Faculty, is sometimes called *authoritative*, or *absolute*, or *supreme*. As none of these attributes could possibly be applicable to an uncompleted process, it is plain that, so far as they apply at all, they apply to the final act of judgment and the feeling inseparable therefrom. But we must exercise great caution in the employment of these terms, and in the associations which we connect with them. The final decision, as it is the total result of reflexion, is, of course, authoritative. But it can only be called absolute and supreme in the sense that there is no appeal from it to any other tribunal than to the subsequent action of Conscience itself. But there always is, or ought to be, an opportunity of making this appeal back to the Conscience itself, as guided by better information and further reflexion. We are, therefore, quite justified in using these attributes as exclusive of any external authority, but we are not justified in using them as exclusive of the subsequent and more matured judgments of the Moral Faculty, sitting, as a court of appeal, on its own previous decisions.

It will readily be seen that in the above the author gets clear of a difficulty, although in doing so he must seem to many to minimize the importance of the first verdict of conscience itself.

When we come to the Will, there is, as might naturally be expected, a considerable space devoted to the question of freedom, although we are told that this "appears to be one of those questions whose speculative interest is out of all proportion to their practical importance." The author points out with singular clearness and force the weighty arguments that can be urged on both sides. He is easily able to show the weakness in Kant's position. He jostles against each other Hamilton and Mill. He points out that Sidgwick is no better than his predecessors. And then—why then, he leaves us with "apparent contradictions which we cannot reconcile." The solution is no better than that of any of the later followers of Hamilton, who force everything that an abstract logic cannot explain into the region of mystery. That is to say, that thought can raise questions which it is incapable of answering. Surely Dr. Fowler—notwithstanding what he writes on pp. 325-6—can see that there is something irrational in taking up such a standpoint. The whole fault of his work is, that in controversial matters he tries to take a middle position. Yet, in spite of, or possibly because of, his fault, we are certain that his book will be one of those most prized by English students.

However worthy of praise Dr. McCosh may be for his earnestness and persistence, he is hardly likely to secure for his version of the Scottish philosophy that success which he seems to expect. The two volumes of *Realistic Philosophy defended in a Philosophic Series* contain a vast quantity of matter not new, often not important, and never well arranged. What is presented to the reader is only a variation of the old tune, which, to tell the truth, is becoming decidedly tiresome. The realism of the author is of the very crudest sort. He looks upon mind and matter as two absolutely distinct entities, both of which are directly known. So far, indeed, does he carry out this notion that he (vol. ii. p. 70) blames Sir William Hamilton because he "unfortunately made all our knowledge relative and not positive." He is not satisfied with even Descartes's starting point—*Cogito, ergo sum*. "We should at the same time begin with the existence of external and material objects as affecting us" (vol. i. p. 209), and again:—"Our primitive perceptions contemplate things." This practically means that philosophy is to be based upon the uncritical verdict of the ordinary consciousness. Dr. McCosh starts with an absolute and irreconcilable dualism, forgetting that its two terms cannot be co-ordinated, since the distinction itself is created by one of them. Falling into the common error that idealism annihilates objective reality, he fails to see that it does no more than he himself wishes to do—shows that the guarantee for subject and object alike is to be found in consciousness, in thought. To put it in another way, it is the mind which separates between itself as subject and the object; and it must be assumed to be beyond the power of its own creation. Two things which are absolutely independent, the one of the other, can never come together. David Hume saw this difficulty, and resolved everything into sensation. Kant saw it, and showed that sensation is in itself a mere chaos. His own error was that he left to this chaos a kind of existence as something "given." The fault of Dr. McCosh is that he does not see it at all. In all his strictures upon idealism he proceeds on the assumption that it is of the character wittily parodied in *Through the Looking-Glass* as propounded by the philosophers Tweedledum and Tweedledee. Neither of the latter could say anything more amusing than what we find in vol. i. p. 15:—"Idealism leads logically and historically to Agnosticism; for, if portions of our original knowledge be ideal, that is imaginary, why may not all be?" There is a great deal more on the same subject. Thus, in dealing with Hegel, he magnanimously admits:—"I am not the individual who understands him, and yet I so far understand him." In proof of the latter part of this sentence he goes on:—"He and his followers have drawn out innumerable triplet divisions on all subjects—which they identify with the Scripture doctrine of the Trinity—by seizing on a quality, putting in one class all objects that have it, in another all which do not have it, and in a third class what is indifferent; all this without inquiring whether there are such divisions in nature." Any one reading this can surely see at a glance how deficient is Dr. McCosh's knowledge of Hegel and his followers. Did his statement even approach to the truth, the identification of the doctrine of the Trinity with such a haphazard manufacture of triplets as he supposes would long ago have covered the system and its adherents with ridicule and contempt. We are not con-

cerned to defend Hegel or anybody else, but rather to show, by taking this glaring instance, how untrustworthy a guide *Realistic Philosophy* must be to any student. The author is throughout unable to form an impartial estimate of the work of those from whom he differs, and is apt to make up by strong assertion what he wants in argument. To follow him through his historical criticisms would be a waste of time; to refer at any length to the "self-evident truths" which he takes for granted, the contradictions of which he gets rid by calling them "mysteries," and the ever-present influence of his original dualism would be a trial to any one's patience. Where there is anything good in these volumes, that thing has been said more concisely and more forcibly before by writers who were as earnest, more able, and less vain than the President of Princeton College. Before leaving the book, we must say that it should have been more carefully revised before publication. Especially in the first volume the spelling is sometimes incorrect and the punctuation bad. Now and then the author is made to utter sentences which, to use his own criterion, are self-evidently absurd. We quote two as they appear:—"An essential part of it is no doubt the immediately state, the idea of the deed" (vol. i. p. 122). "In induction we have to rise from the unknown to the known" (vol. i. p. 62). Even Dr. McCosh could not have written this. Were there likely to be a second edition of his work, we should suggest a thorough revision before it appears.

Within the last few years physiological investigation has been advancing with wonderful rapidity, and the relations of this branch of material science to psychology have come to claim much patient attention. Professor Ladd's *Elements of Physiological Psychology* is a striking proof of the amount of work which has been done in this direction. It is clearly written, profusely illustrated, and contains a large quantity of well-arranged matter. The first part deals with the nervous mechanism, the second with the correlations of that mechanism with the mind, and the last with the nature of the mind itself. The author justifies physiological psychology in the best way, by pointing, as he has a right to do, to its admitted actual achievements. There is always a tendency among those who study this subject to do so from a purely materialistic standpoint. Professor Huxley thinks that only the terms of materialism should be employed, but he is unable to carry that theory successfully into practice. The present author, however, is thoroughly opposed to this. He sees that the phenomena of consciousness require for their explanation something more than a statement of those changes in the material organism with which they are obviously correlated. He believes that "no mind can frame any intelligible idea of what could be meant by identifying" phenomena of the motion of material atoms and phenomena of change in mental states. The conclusion at which he arrives, after a searching criticism of the materialistic position, is that "the subject of all the states of consciousness is a real unit being, called Mind; which is of non-material nature, and acts and develops according to laws of its own, but is specially correlated with certain material molecules and masses forming the substance of the Brain." Professor Ladd's book is one for students; but even to a great number of these it will prove sufficiently hard reading, because it implies a certain acquaintance with many scientific technicalities and details. We have received the same author's translation of Lotze's *Outlines of Logic*. It is taken from the second German edition, and is carefully done. It shows, however, as all translations from the German do show, that the English philosophical vocabulary is unable to express with sufficient exactness many of the niceties of phrase of the original. The best portions of this work are the first chapter, "On the Formation of Concepts," and the wonderfully compact *Encyclopedia of Philosophy* at the end. The latter is distinctly inviting to criticism; but, as it is merely a part of the author's complete work, that is unnecessary here.

The Scottish philosophy dies hard. If ever it receives its death-blow, it will be from the hand of one of those professed friends who do not understand it. Such a one we have in the anonymous author of *Scottish Metaphysics Reconstructed in accordance with the Principles of Physical Science*. He does not seem to see that the very title of his work involves a contradiction. As to its contents in general, it is difficult to understand what he really means. And the fault is his own; for he confuses the reader, not only by mysterious numbers, brackets, and quite inexplicable points of interrogation, but also by the introduction of a new and complicated terminology. His style, moreover, is not clear enough to give any assistance. It is clumsy, cumbersome, and redundant. That our labour may not seem fruitless we may give a very summary outline of his main position. He endeavours to show that behind the "physical modes" presented to our direct "perception" there is a "hyper-physical region of Space, Time, and Force," which three are objective universal realities presented to our direct "intuition." On the other hand, there is a "hyper-physico-moral" triad behind the faculties of our minds. "Their intellectual faculties seem to be derived from universal Intelligence, their emotional capacities from universal Goodness, and their voluntary powers from universal Causation." Below both of these triads, which the author evidently conceives as running parallel to each other, he discovers "universal Existence, which is the base and unity of all existences, both universal and modal"; and since this is in itself created and impersonal, he argues that there must be a personal God, and makes the usual appeal to revelation to show that he is right. We might ask him many questions were it worth while—notably why he gives to bare



qualityless Existence such a high place in his system. It "supports and penetrates all other *impersonal existences, including minds* (the italics are our own), and from it they are all manifested, and in it they all abide, and, shall we say? into it they all ultimately merge." People who write in this preposterous fashion can say what they please, but they cannot expect a patient hearing. The one satisfactory thing we have to mention about the book is that the preface is so thoroughly bad that very few will venture beyond it into the extraordinary verbal muddle which is given as criticism of Sir William Hamilton.

Could good old Dr. Fleming come back to life for a short time, he would be considerably surprised at the change which has come over Moral Philosophy since the days when he used to teach it from his "Manual" in the University of Glasgow. New answers, he would find, are being given to the old questions, and new questions are being asked. His chair is occupied by an Oxford man, who revels in that German philosophy which in old times was synonymous for all that was dangerous and heretical. The "Manual" itself has long been laid aside. And, worst of all, were he to take up his own *Vocabulary of Philosophy* in its fourth edition, he would scarcely be able to recognize it. Professor Calderwood and his coadjutors admit that fully one-half of the book in its present form is entirely new. They have gone about their work with admirable thoroughness, cutting out many of the old quotations and adding a large portion of new ones. They have also wisely given ample references to the literature of each subject. With regard to the quotations we are not quite sure that they have been altogether judicious. Were these to be used only as the editors fondly imagine they will be, they could do no harm; but the unfortunate thing is, that they may be used otherwise. A student inclined to shirk his work may get from them a great deal of superficial knowledge that can help him in examination; and he may be satisfied with that. Such a result Professors Calderwood and Seth would deprecate as much as we do. On the other hand, the list of books which may be consulted is very full and exact, and therefore of the greatest value. This is the happiest and most distinctive feature of the edition, for which the thanks of all students are due to the Edinburgh professor and those who have assisted him. We may add that all the new statements in the volume are made with brevity and clearness.

A work somewhat akin to the foregoing, but much more ambitious, is *A Dictionary of Philosophy in the Words of Philosophers*. This is a species of publication that we do not much care for. Extracts of varying length, of all sorts, and from all kinds of authors, are here arranged under different heads, each of which has divisions and subdivisions of its own. On the whole the selections are fairly representative, but several of them are unnecessary, while others are quite out of place. What really is most to be condemned is the making of the book at all. People cannot judge of a system by an extract, nor, on the other hand, can they estimate the value of the extract apart from the system. The compilers have doubtless done their best; but this method of clipping two or three sentences from systematic works to represent the opinions of their authors on particular points is one which could only too readily be abused. A passage apart from its context may seem to mean something entirely different from what the author intended. We have known a sentence (taken from Mr. Herbert Spencer, who does not write in an obscure style) set down for criticism in an honours examination, and understood in entirely different senses by two very able students. The method of this book is, therefore, unfair both to the authors from whom the selections are borrowed, and to those for whose use we imagine it is intended. If the person who chooses the quotations knows the subject thoroughly, he is certain to have decided opinions, and these cannot fail to influence his choice. If he does not know it, so much the worse. There is still another way of looking at books like this—namely, from the pecuniary standpoint. How many quotations (published in this way for profit) is a dictionary-maker to be allowed to appropriate from a book without infringing the copyright? But, passing from that, it is amusing to note that among the "philosophers" whose words are cited are Shakespeare, Wordsworth, Byron, Ruskin, and Tennyson. With regard to the last named, we do not imagine that the hackneyed lines on Reverence from *In Memoriam* were absolutely necessary for the purposes of this work, nor that any budding moral philosopher will add much to his ethical knowledge by reading the words "Better die than lie," from *Queen Mary*. Professor J. Radford Thomson contributes an introduction, the closing sections of which are succinct and sensible; while the list of books quoted is a full one, and the indexes will be found helpful.

We have a determined hostility to the partial friends who advise an author to publish a work about which he himself is doubtful; and we have not much sympathy with the author who allows himself to be so deluded. If it is really diffidence which prevents him from going to the world with what he has to say, he should take the opinion of some critic who is perfectly unbiased. Had Mr. George Wall done this, *The Natural History of Thought*—at least in its present form—would never have appeared. The book is not properly a philosophical one at all. Its purpose is "to trace the birth and progress of the thinking faculty, and to learn the manner of its growth from its earliest dawn to the maturity of its powers, in order to ascertain the proper means by which it may be moulded and directed during its plastic stage." The aim is good, but in pursuing it the author is only partially successful. There are several really valuable remarks throughout

the chapters, but the author is too discursive and prone to repetition. Besides, there is so much doubtful theology and bad philosophy that the sensible remarks are considerably obscured. Mr. Wall lays too much stress on unquestioning obedience to authority, whether that be of tutors or of Scripture, as he interprets it. He is at his best when he writes on the four stages of intellectual development, and at his worst in such a chapter as that on "Inherited Capabilities." In the latter he makes the surprising remark that "every one knows by his own experience that he acquires his ideas by the use of his senses, and by reflecting on past sensations and ideas"; but, as he does not profess to philosophize, it would perhaps be unfair to discuss a statement about what "every one knows." That the lowest animals possess rationality, and yet are incapable of making moral distinctions, is a curious article of Mr. Wall's creed, in which he seems to see no inconsistency. In support of it he gives many stories in his appendix, among which we notice the very old one of the cured dog bringing a wounded brother to the physician. We have no doubt of his sincerity in recording the tale, but its antiquity rendered its repetition unnecessary.

It is rather interesting to look over the *Questions on Psychology, Metaphysics, and Ethics* compiled by Mr. F. Ryland. He has selected them from various sources, and it is not difficult in most cases to see upon what lines the answer was expected to proceed. We can infer this sometimes from the form of the question itself, and often from the quarter whence it issued. Mr. Ryland has taken a good deal of trouble, and thinks the book may be of advantage to students, teachers, and examiners. The mention of the last-named suggests the fact that they are apt to get into a rut—a fact so well known that advantage is sometimes taken of it. A little extra care in the setting of papers, and, above all, an avoidance of hobbies, are not too much to expect from examiners.

#### FRENCH LITERATURE.

M. FASTENRATH'S notes on prominent Germans of the last few years or decades are not very remarkable for style, or for the importance of the facts mentioned (1); but the number and variety of the persons referred to, and the interest of some of them, will probably make the book attractive to a considerable number of readers. We have here a visit to the last scene of that singular farce-tragedy, the life of the late King of Bavaria, an account of the Carnival at Cologne, of the centenary of Uhlard, of the Luther festival at Worms. Wagner is there, inevitably; and Abt and Hiller, among musicians. Josephine Gallmeyer and Charlotte Wolter represent the actresses who have been, since Goethe set the fashion of extolling their profession, such a power in Germany. Makart, Piloty, Richter, Menzel, and others appear to show that art is not neglected; and as for literature, a crowd of names, old and new, great and small, Schiller and Scheffel, Heine and Hillebrand, Börne, Freytag, Von Reumont, and a dozen others, figure. As has been said, there is not much that is of the first importance, but plenty of readable trifles. Politics are not prominent, though Lasker, the deputy, and a few crowned heads appear.

M. Nietnicheff's *Lady Vanda* (2) is a very funny book, half-novel, half-drama. It opens with an elaborate description of an *intérieur de garçon*, where a domestic, "aged and powdered, in orange and white livery, prepares with method and dexterity 'des soda-brandy.'" The italicized words seem rather suited to complicated American drinks than to the sweet simplicity of the "peg"; but French curiosity always seems to be highly excited by that innocent drink, and it is not more than a week or two since we met with a far more elaborate recipe. It is noticeable that the soda-water tumbler seems especially to fascinate the Gallic mind, unaccustomed to "long" drinks. The rest of *Lady Vanda*, which throughout describes English society, is a curious mixture of knowledge and ignorance, leavened with a strong dash of anti-Semitism.

We admit with the frankness proper to the scholar that we do not know whether the original Bossut, who did a French Phrase-book (3), was the editor of Pascal or not. Whoever he was, he must have been an odd man. The inclusion of "I love you" (quite correctly Frenched "Je vous aime") under the head of "Idiomatical phrases," "phrases idiomatiques," "caps" us, as they would say in Yorkshire, altogether. Cynics have pronounced this expression of sentiment to be idiotic, but idiomatic we never heard it called. Where is the idiom? Again, though "Faites-moi un peu de place" may be very good French, "Make me a little room" is by no means usual English, which says "Make room for me." We never, we confess, cared greatly for phrase-books, for what they contain can be learnt much better from actual conversation of a reasonable kind, or even from reading plenty of intelligently-chosen books. But if we must have them, let us have books which do not call the one phrase common to all languages, and entirely free from idiomatic or vernacular peculiarity in any, an idiom, and which do not speak of "room" in English as if it were soup or coffee.

An odd little book, with a date twenty years back (4), has been

(1) *Figures de l'Allemagne contemporaine*. Par J. Fastenrath. Paris: Savine.

(2) *Fanges dorées. Lady Vanda*. Par Ivan Nietnicheff. Paris: Sauvaltre.

(3) *Bossut's French Phrase-book*. London: Whittaker.

(4) *A bas Voltaire!—Vade-Mecum du chrétien*. Par Nobody. Anywhere: chez les Bedeaux.

sent us. What it means we do not very clearly perceive. It consists of a great many extracts from Voltaire's works, neither particularly shocking, nor particularly creditable, nor particularly anything. It certainly will not crush "L'Infâme," but neither will it greatly assist "L'Infâme" to crush that very-much-given-to-equivocation-and-tergiversation enemy of hers, M. de Voltaire.

Mr. and Mme. Norman's English Grammar (5) seems, as far as we have examined it, to contrast rather favourably with the extremely unsatisfactory things called English grammars in our own language. It does not attempt scientific arrangement, but consists of a painstaking and, we should say, on the whole accurate, analysis and cataloguing of the innumerable exceptions and the few rules which make up what is called grammar in English.

#### NEW BOOKS AND REPRINTS.

**THE Warrior Medici** (London Literary Society), by Catherine Mary Phillimore, is not inaptly styled "An Historical Study in Florence," though other cities of Italy are more intimately associated with the exploits of the valorous Giovanni delle Bande Nere, the great captain well named the Invincible, the friend of Aretino and father of the first Grand Duke of Tuscany. Florence, however, possesses the most striking memorials of the gallant soldier whose ability and courage are celebrated by her historians Guicciardini and Macchiavelli, whose deeds found a chronicler and a painter in Vasari, and whose monument in the Piazza San Lorenzo is as familiar to every visitor to Florence as the noble statue and the portrait by Titian in the Uffizi. From State records and letters in the Magliabechiana library Miss Phillimore has drawn some fresh material that vivifies her excellent and agreeably-written study of Giovanni de' Medici's life, and reveals the great qualities of his wife, the devoted and politic Maria Salviata. The comparison suggested by Miss Phillimore between the soldierly virtues of Giovanni de' Medici and the more splendid renown of other members of his family, such as Lorenzo the Magnificent, Cosmo the Father of his Country, and Leo X., is one of a kind which historians with philosophical tendencies find attractive. There is no recognized standard by which to measure greatness. Military leaders are subjected to various and even conflicting tests, from the purely technical view that considers only tactics, and successful tactics, to that which esteems more worthy of admiration the personal qualities of heroism. To some Giovanni, with his black horsemen, now for France and anon for the Pope and the Emperor, may appear only a superior example of the soldier of fortune, in spite of Aretino's eloquent testimony to his chivalry and military genius. Even in his own times his conduct did not escape criticism; but Miss Phillimore points out how excusable was his change of front, seeing that Leo X. was his first patron and was always on the watch for the most useful ally. After all is said, the hero shines out in the most trying circumstances; and it was during the third period of his brief career, which included the battle of Pavia, when fighting on the losing side and with perfidious allies, that Giovanni de' Medici most brilliantly displayed his strategy and heroism. If, as Miss Phillimore says, there would have been something lacking in his career if he had not aided the chivalrous Francis I. and "shared in the barren honour of Pavia," it was less in the fitness of things that he should fall by the first shot of the Imperial artillery at Borgoforte, the victim of "villainous saltpetre," assisted by that barbarous act of surgery which Aretino could not bear to witness. The accepted account of this horrible operation so bravely borne is corroborated by some curious particulars which Miss Phillimore gives on the authority of the Marchese Mario Corvoni. On the whole, the author has skilfully utilized existing material, with the fruits of independent research, in this interesting little book.

Scholarly qualities of finish and style, the marks of fastidious taste and a sensitive ear, distinguish Mr. Alfred J. Church's slight volume, *The Legend of St. Vitalis; and other Poems* (Oxford: Blackwell). In some of the shorter poems, "The Ebb of Love" and "A Regret," the chastened propriety of expression recalls the poetry of an older day, when Campbell and Rogers flourished, so little accordant with current looseness of phrase and abhorrence of form are the characteristics of Mr. Church's elegant and polished verse. "The Sea of Galilee" is, perhaps, the poem in which the poet is revealed most completely, but it is in some stanzas "On the Death of a Dog" that the artist is proclaimed. Here the most correct and exacting taste might be vainly exercised in detecting aught to deduct or in suggesting an additional or substituting touch. It is pleasant, also, to find Mr. Church has not omitted his Latin rendering of the lines from *In Memoriam*, "Could we forget the widowed hour," which received the praise of the judicious Calverley.

In a graceful dedication to his grandson Mr. William John Blew explains how he was led to cap Campbell's version of the choruses from *Medea* by his translation *Medea; from the Tragedy of Euripides* (Rivingtons), a little book that includes renderings from Catullus, Tibullus, Pindar, and the Homeric Hymns. While Campbell's choruses were the mainspring of Mr. Blew's undertaking, it was Mr. A. Sidgwick's *Medea* that determined him to translate and rearrange the chief scenes from Euripides in the interests of studious boys.

(5) *Grammaire de la langue anglaise.* Par Henriette Norman et E. B. Norman. Paris: Leroy. London: Trübner.

*Pagan Pearls*, by Annie Catharine Randall (Elliot Stock), consists of paraphrases of brief passages from ethical writers in Oriental and classical literature, illustrating the wisdom of the ages. Sanskrit epics, Buddhist philosophy, Marcus Aurelius, Epictetus, Phocion, and other worthies, are all drawn upon in this little treasury of apothegms illustrative of pre-Christian ideals of morality.

*Life on the Congo* (Religious Tract Society) is a readable abstract of recent discoveries and explorations of the Congo, by the Rev. W. Holman Bentley, of the Baptist Mission, illustrated by good woodcuts and maps.

*The Beautiful Miss Vivian*, by Julius Barras (Simpkin, Marshall, & Co.), is styled by the author a "society novel," and though there is not much in it of what novel-readers call a story, there is abundance of lively description, flirtation, intrigue, and sporting adventures in these amusing sketches of colonial life in and about "Candourtown." Colonel Barras is a vivacious writer, as every one knows who has read *India and Tiger-Hunting*, and he does not cease to be entertaining from the opening to the finish of *The Beautiful Miss Vivian*.

Who loves a good mystery, persuasively handled and sustained, should be gratified by Mr. F. W. Robinson's 99 *Dark Street* (J. & R. Maxwell).

We gladly welcome a cheap re-issue of Sir Samuel Ferguson's tales and legends from Irish history, originally contributed to the *Dublin University and Blackwood*, under the title *Hibernian Nights' Entertainment* (Dublin: Sealy, Bryers, & Walker. London: Bell & Sons). The first series form a well-printed shilling book comprising the charming legend "The Death of the Children of Usnach," "The Return of Claneboy," and "The Captive of Killeshin," this last being one of the most spirit-stirring stories of the author.

Mr. A. N. Palmer's *History of the Parish Church of Wrexham* (Wrexham: Wordall, Minshall, & Thomas) concludes the author's parochial history of Wrexham. The volume is well illustrated by plans and diagrams, and includes a mass of antiquarian lore, with an interesting paper on the mediæval portionary churches of North Wales.

We have received a second and revised edition of Herr Schleyer's *Grammar and Vocabularies of Volapük*, translated by Mr. W. A. Seret, certificated teacher of the Universal Language (Whittaker & Co.); the second volume of Signor Cappelletti's *Storia della Rivoluzione Francese* (Foligno: Sgariglia); the ninth part of Mr. James Croston's revised and enlarged edition of the *History of the County of Lancaster*, by the late Edward Baines (Heywood); *Reliquæ*, by Grandpère Edmond (Elliot Stock); and *Clare Vaughan*, by Lady Lovat (Burns & Oates).

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